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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A LEADERSHIP STYLES COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK (LSCF) ASSOCIATED WITH EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE ROLE OF THE REGIONAL RUGBY DEVELOPMENT MANAGER IN SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

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SUMMARY

The aim of this study is to determine the effect of leadership styles competency frameworks on the leadership effectiveness of Regional Rugby Development Managers (RRDM's) at the Rugby Football Union (RFU), with particular reference to school rugby.

A further aim is to investigate the impact of organizational climate on the role of the RRDM and those who they lead.

An analysis of literature resources was undertaken by employing the use of electronic media, library searches and a search of leadership and management related journals. A range of senior leaders across a raft of businesses, sporting and other organizations were contacted via electronic media for input and assistance on the research topics.

Leadership training was undertaken with key RFU personnel on a number of occasions, with the objectives being that by the end of such training, each delegate would be able to:

- Understand the links between individual characteristics, leadership styles and organizational performance
- Describe their own leadership styles
- Describe the organizational climate that they create
- Describe their individual characteristics and how they relate to the way they lead others
- State personal development targets

In this study, a total of 78 delegates were engaged in exclusive testing in relation to leadership effectiveness in terms of 360 degree feedback processes (such as a leadership styles inventory). This multi-rater survey provided the RRDM's with a profile

of their leadership styles in six dimensions, and the genesis of the work with the Hay Group tested the surveys with 215 organisations and 10234 leaders across all management levels, industries and functions. The profile of each RRDM personnel was compared with a representative sample of the Hay worldwide database, and transformed into percentiles which could be compared with other organizations. Each RRDM was also engaged in testing which sought to measure a group of personal competencies selected as most likely to make a performance difference in their role. The organizational climate survey employed was normed against a data base of 12457 participants and 262 organisations.

Results were statistically processed, recorded and compared with earlier literature studies.

A Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF) was proposed with the philosophy that the 'best' organizations now have competency models at different levels to help leaders clarify expectations of performance and describe the skills necessary for promotion.

Recommendations were made, shortcomings of the study identified and suggestions for further study were proposed.

KEY TERMS: **Leadership Styles; Effective Leadership; Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF); Organisational Climate; School Rugby; Regional Rugby Development Manager.**

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LSCF	Leadership Styles Competency Framework
Ofsted	The Office for Standards in Education
RFU	Rugby Football Union
RRDM	Regional Rugby Development Manager
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
CRC	Community Rugby Coach
RFUW	Rugby Football Union (Women)
CBRDP	Constituent Body Rugby Development Plan
CCDP	Community Club Development Programme
ERFSU	England Rugby Football Schools Union
LSI	Leadership Styles Inventory
OCS	Organisational Climate Survey
RDO	Rugby Development Officers

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT, SUBSTANTIATION, RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES.

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the context of this study, the notion of "effective" relates to possession of the power and ability to produce striking and appropriate outcomes. The ability to gauge the parameters of a particular situation, and to decide upon and implement the most appropriate leadership style(s) to deal with specific people in specific situations constitutes effective leadership. Effective leadership inspires and guides individuals and/or groups, and arouses enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission. Effective leadership employs a range of styles that impact on staff performance by creating a positive organisational climate, thus influencing the discretionary effort of staff. In the context of this study, the term "effective" thus supersedes many researchers' use of the term "good" which can simply be used to mean "useful".

The Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) in England and Wales (2002:v) are of the view that effective leaders should promulgate their vision of what they want to achieve in a variety of ways, and they should ensure that the conditions are in place for ambition to be achieved and sustained. Shakespeare (2004:26) promotes the notion that effective leaders should strive to keep the staff simply 'happy' and focused, whilst retaining a clear vision of where they want to get to, demonstrating the ability to make difficult decisions when they are needed, and still taking people with them, thus allowing people to develop and grow under them. Ofsted (2003:iv) believes that effective leaders should provide a stimulating and professional working environment in which colleagues are highly motivated and enthused by their work, and where they strive to improve performance.

Hesselbein *et al.* (1996:245) stress that effective leaders make things happen. They are responsible for initiating and in some cases creating disequilibrium in order to maintain the vitality of the organisation they lead. Fink (2003:11) recommends that successful leaders use a variety of strategies and styles depending on what it takes to

create an environment for learning, and that they actively search out the many good practices that are out there, and also adapt them to their particular contexts. Pegg (1989:15) is of the view that effective leaders focus on a realistic hope. They are honest, explain the strategies and inspire people to tackle the challenge. Bennis and Thomas (2002:9) believe that true leadership is the ability to learn from even the most negative experiences. Similarly, Mayo and Nohria (2005:49) view 'great' leadership as a function of the circumstances in which businesses and their top executives operate. Hughes *et al.* (2006:43) portray leadership as a process in which leaders and followers interact dynamically in a particular situation or environment.

Hooper and Potter (1997:6) are overt in their quest to promote the case that effective leaders exhibit four key attributes and associated actions that ineffective leaders fail to do. Effective leaders have a vision for the future, set direction, and can communicate that vision to all stakeholders involved in an organisation. Effective leaders also act as powerful examples and role models based on the notion that most people are more influenced by what they see than what they are told. Effective leaders act on their statements and create a climate in which staff are motivated and want to align to a vision. Daft (1999:186) reinforces the notion that such a stand can increase employee cohesion and commitment to an organisation's values, goals and strategies.

Gardner (1997:16) identifies that effective leaders exhibit a readiness to confront authority, a readiness to take risks, resilience in the face of failure and a confidence in one's own instinct and intuition. They also exhibit the ability to see and keep in mind the 'big' picture, being driven by a moral commitment and a sense of timing, allowing them to stand back, reflect and learn from experiences. Gardner (1997:17) also portrays the view that the capacity to take risks speaks to a confidence that one will at least sometimes attain success, and implacability in the face of organisation likewise reflects a willingness to rely on oneself and not to succumb to others' strictures and reservations. However, Krause (1997:42) promotes the notion that effective leaders are excellent learners who know how to follow and give others their place, and believes that effective leaders should show depth of purpose in five ways. They should exhibit tact and diplomacy, tolerance for ambiguity, reliability and loyalty, diligence and quality and regard for others.

Hesselbein *et al.* (1996:243) suggest that a leader who is willing to serve can provide hope instead of despair, and can be an example for those who want direction and purpose in their lives, and who desire to accomplish and contribute. This serving leader is the leader of the future. Similarly, Smith (2000:3) is simply of the view that leaders are people willing to inspire others to give of their best. Indeed, Scarnati (2001:181) believes that leading people is more an art than a science. With practice, forethought and experience, becoming competent in the art of leadership is possible. It is likened to an art because it seldom deals with quantifiable absolutes. Unlike science, a myriad of human variables interact, making it impossible to predict cause-effect relationships accurately. Therefore, to lead and work effectively with staff means understanding the subtle nuances of human interactions.

A review of research into leadership by Stogdill (1974:5) highlights difficulties in defining the term. This has lead to researchers such as Burns (1978:37) distinguishing between transactional and transformational leadership, where the notion of the transactional refers to accomplish, to conduct, to have responsibility for, as opposed to the transformational which is concerned with influencing, guiding or opinionated perspectives of leadership. The latter half of the twentieth century saw as many as sixty five classification systems developed in attempts to define the dimension of leadership (Fleishman *et al.,* 1991:251). By the end of the century, Owen (2000:14) promoted the view that the transformational element of leadership requires leaders to understand and to listen to what is emerging in the world and to share them with others by correcting them and acting accordingly.

A modern view of Parks (2005:9) is that effective leadership addresses problems that require people to move from a familiar but inadequate equilibrium, through disequilibrium to a more adequate state. In other words, the complex conditions of today require acts of leadership that assist people moving beyond the edge of familiar patterns into the greater unknown terrain of greater complexity, new learning and new behaviour which usually require loss, grief, conflict, risk, stress and creativity. Goffee and Jones (2006:2) consider that effective leadership has the potential to excite people to extraordinary levels of achievement. They focus on leaders who excel at inspiring people and who succeed in capturing 'hearts, minds and souls', along with the notion that leaders consistently be themselves, even as they alter their behaviours to respond effectively to changing contexts. Indeed, Piasecka (2000:253) simply views leadership

as not about grand gestures or personal greatness, but about detailed everyday activities available to everyone. Berry and Cartwright (2000) believe that the practice and study of leadership is, and will be, a continuing fascination for leaders and academics.

Leadership develops in a climate of trust, while it withers in a climate of distrust, suspicion and cynicism (Adair, 1989:72). Leadership involves focussing the efforts of the group of people towards a common goal and enabling them to work as a team (Adair, 1986:16). Leadership is a subtle, complex, often subjective, but highly valued concept (Northouse, 1997:xiii). It is often argued that leadership is not a position or a place in an organisation, but a sense of responsibility. It is about making sure one knows what the dynamics at the level of the followers are, and understanding how such an understanding relates to 'the big picture'. Contemporary thinking about leadership exposes the importance of leaders developing a valued base on which to build their strategies, priorities and styles (Brundrett, Burton and Smith, 2003:11). Indeed, 'old' models of leadership, based on assumptions of control and co-ordination, are increasingly viewed as falling short of adequately preparing the new generation of leaders (Cooper, 2005:58). In the context of this study, leadership will be viewed as a process by which an individual is the catalyst that continually stimulates a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

Smith (2000:2) recognises that modern organisations such as the Rugby Football Union (RFU) in England require people to be more exposed and more accountable, operating in a culture where all need to think and take risks, suggesting ideas that may be wrong but at the same time visiting how key elements can be improved. Such personnel need to stand by what they know, making their own judgements. They need effective leaders who strive to meet the real needs of each situation with awareness, attitude and purpose, whilst operating at the edge of their abilities and their creativity and being responsible and accountable for their actions. Smith (2000:2) also stresses that effective leaders should expose themselves to risk and stand up to their convictions, seeing the 'bigger' picture and applying their insight to meeting objectives. Such leaders should improve things wherever they are in an organisation, inspire others to give of their best, open themselves to challenge seeking to understand others' viewpoints, and approach work with courage, passion, humanity, purpose and spirit.

Two common forms of leadership are assigned and emergent leadership (Northouse, 1997:5). The former is based on the possession of a formal title or position within an organisation, such as the RFU's Regional Rugby Development Manager (RRDM) position. The latter is a product of what an individual may do and how that individual assumes support from others within an organisation. In process terms, leadership applies to individuals in both assigned and emergent forms. An individual assigned to a leadership position is not always an 'actual' leader in certain contexts. When an individual is regarded as the most influential member of a group or organisational context, the individual exhibits emergent leadership whether it has a title or not. Such emergent leadership status is a direct result of others within an organisational setting supporting and accepting an individual's behaviour. Fisher (1974:32) recognised that some of the position communication behaviours that account for successful leader emergence include being verbally involved, being informed, seeking others' opinions, initiating new ideas and being firm but not rigid.

Bennis (2004:14) believes that a leader's life unfolds in seven stages. He refers to the 'infant executive' who looks for a mentor for guidance, and then the 'schoolboy' who must learn how to do the job in public. The 'lover' struggles with the tsunami of problems that every organisation presents, and the 'bearded soldier' must be willing to hire people better than him, because he knows that talented underlings can help him shine. The 'general' must become adept at allowing people to speak the truth and be able to hear what they are saying, and the 'statesman' is hard at work preparing to pass on wisdom in the interests of the organisation. Finally, the 'sage' embraces the role of mentor to young executives.

Leadership styles will be investigated, not because they can be best described as a refined theory that provides a context for effective leadership behaviour, but because they provide a framework for assessing leadership, and reference to leadership styles can facilitate a leader's understanding of how his or her behaviours towards others affect the quality of leadership provided. As Scarnati (2001:181) shows, a benchmark for leaders is to grasp an understanding of behaviour models that motivate, and behaviour models that inhibit desired outcomes. Working together requires not only basic leadership skills, but also a fundamental understanding of the manner in which the leader's behaviour affects others.

The link between leadership styles (see Chapter 2) and personal characteristics was investigated. Goleman (1998:41) proposed the notion that competency in relation to characteristics such as personal effectiveness reinforced the authoritative, affiliative, democratic and coaching leadership styles, whilst lack of competency with personal characteristics was commensurate with leaders employing predominantly coercive and pacesetting styles. The study seeks to examine whether such links exist in the role of the RRDM.

The notion of organisational climate and effectiveness is also deemed important to this study. Research by Hay McBer (1998) also focused on the perception of employees about organisational climate, and suggested six dimensions which all had a critical impact on the performance of an organisation, and which were influenced by the leadership styles in an organisation i.e.

- Flexibility
- Responsibility
- Standards
- Rewards
- Clarity
- Team Commitment

The above dimensions formed another focus to the research (see Chapter 3) and are defined in Chapter 2. Organisational climate refers to an employee's perception of the organisation for whom they work, and how well they can undertake their duties and responsibilities. The climate of an organisation affects performance through its influence on employment motivation – not least the discretionary effort and commitment of employees. Despite the findings of early researchers such as Brayfield and Crockett (1955:vii), more recent studies refute the notion that productive organisations also provide high job satisfaction for their employees. Such studies (Mobley, 1977; Blau, 1985) emphasise that organisational climate is influenced by a range of factors including leadership styles. Whatever the case, Smith (2003:249) believes that it is very difficult to change the climate of a large organisation, and knows of only a few studies illustrating where an organisation's culture has been changed.

In 2001, the English Rugby Football Union introduced the new role of RRDM to its' portfolio of leadership posts. From the outset the author was personally charged with organising leadership training workshops for the newly appointed managers, and in September 2001 a workshop was undertaken by nineteen key RFU personnel at the now University College Plymouth (Marjon) where he is employed.

The objectives of such training were that by the end of the workshop delegates would be able to:

- Understand the links between individual characteristics, leadership styles and organisational performance
- Describe their own leadership styles
- Describe the organisational climate that they create
- Describe their individual characteristics and how they relate to the way they lead others
- State personal development targets

Models of leadership effectiveness and organisational effectiveness were explored, with the notion of personal characteristics and their impact on leadership effectiveness to the fore. The background to the training was as a result of the then Teacher Training Agency (TTA) initiative to develop a leadership training programme for secondary school headteachers as part of a Government drive to raise standards in schools. The Hay McBer organisation worked in sympathy with the TTA, and then with the author in devolving the RFU programme.

The author adapted the programme to the needs of the RRDM's and other key RFU personnel, and following the workshop in September 2001, each delegate experienced diagnostic testing and research in relation to leadership styles, leadership competencies and the organisational climate that each one of them experienced and created. These three aspects formed the basis for the empirical survey of this study.

At a follow-up workshop in 2002 each delegate received one to one feedback on the results of the initial research (highlighted above), and from there were encouraged to state personal development targets and draw up a personal action plan for the future.

The role of the RRDM has expanded rapidly since 2001 and it now encompasses a wide leadership responsibility. Reporting directly to the National Rugby Development Manager, the RRDM's duties and responsibilities include the requirement to:

1) Implement the development plans, programmes and initiatives drawn up by the National Development Managers through the delivery arm of Rugby Development Officers (RDO's) and Community Rugby Co-ordinators (CRC's). Manage the programmes of work within the agreed budget ensuring value for money at all times.

2) Manage, deploy and develop the regional delivery team of RDO's, Rugby Union Student Liaison Officers (RUSLO's), CRC's and other personnel within the region responsible for rugby to ensure delivery of the above programmes and to meet the agreed objectives.

3) Manage the implementation of the RFU Strategic Plan at regional level through liaison with all relevant agencies including RFUW and Premier Rugby.

4) Help establish and maintain effective working relationships with all Constituent Body Rugby Development Plans (CBRDP's) and Sport England Regional Sports Boards within the region.

5) Liaise with all other sections within the Community Rugby Department as necessary to support the delivery of comprehensive development programmes throughout the job holder's region.

6) In conjunction with the regional Rugby Academy Directors ensure effective links are created and maintained between the Community Game and Academy Structure.

7) Be responsible for the regional co-ordination of any national initiatives.

8) Be responsible for producing consolidated monthly regional reports for the National Development Managers and the Community Rugby Director.

9) Be responsible for establishing, maintaining and updating a regional list of 'at risk' clubs and to ensure support programmes are in place for each.

10) Be responsible for compiling, maintaining and updating a regional list of clubs and the key parameters for delivering club sustainability.

11) Act as an ambassador for and promote the best interests of the RFU at all times.

12) Undertake such other duties as may be required from time to time as are consistent with the responsibilities of the post and the needs of the RFU.

RFU Human Resource Dept. (2006)

Key research recognises that modern organisations (such as the RFU) require people to be more exposed and more accountable, operating in a culture where all need to think and take risks, suggesting ideas that may be wrong but at the same time visiting how key elements can be improved. Such personnel need to stand by what they know, making their own judgements and they thus need leaders who Smith (2000:3) feels should strive to meet the real needs of each situation with awareness, attitude and purpose, whilst operating at the edge of their abilities and their creativity, and taking responsibility and being accountable for their actions. They should expose themselves to risk and stand up to their convictions, and see the bigger picture and apply their

insight to meeting objectives whilst improving things wherever they are in an organisation. Whilst inspiring others to give of their best, opening themselves to challenge and seeking to understand others' viewpoints, they should approach work with courage, passion, humanity, purpose and spirit.

The RFU has a human resource problem in that no leadership styles competency framework associated with effective leadership in the role of RRDM currently exists – a phenomenon this study sought to address. Effective organisational climates were also investigated. The two key questions were:

a) What is the effect of leadership styles competency frameworks on the leadership effectiveness of the RRDM's, with particular reference to school rugby?

b) What is the impact of organisational climate on the leadership effectiveness of the RRDM's?

In the context of this study, a leadership styles competency framework is a theoretical competency model that facilitates leaders in their quest to clarify expectations of their performance, whilst describing the skills necessary for promotion. The competency portfolio is comprised of clusters of personal competencies deemed most likely to make a difference to the effectiveness of the leadership afforded by the RRDM's. Finally, organisational climate refers to the RRDM's perceptions of key aspects of their working environment that directly impacts on how effective they are as leaders.

It is hoped that the findings of the study will impact positively on the effectiveness of those with leadership responsibilities in both sporting and wider contexts, thus improving the practice of leadership in high profile sports settings in South Africa, the United Kingdom and beyond.

1.2 RESEARCH AIMS

Two aims were investigated:

- The first aim was to determine the effect of leadership styles competency frameworks on the leadership effectiveness of RRDM's, with particular reference to school rugby.
- A further aim was to investigate the impact of organisational climate on the role of the RRDM and those who they lead.

The study is founded on the hypothesis that effective leadership hinges on the concepts of leadership styles, personal competencies and organisational climate working symbiotically.

1.3 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

1.3.1 Review of literature sources

An analysis of literature sources was conducted by employing the use of electronic media, a library search and a search of appropriate journals. Databases such as Pubmed, Medline, Sport Discus and Eric were employed. Key topics researched are leadership styles, personal characteristics and the organisational climate created.

Prominent International consultants specialising in leadership - e.g. the Harvard Business School and the Hay Group – were consulted where appropriate. Such consultants span the realm of business, education and sport.

1.3.2 Empirical investigation

1.3.2.1 Choice of participants

The study population consisted of all RRDM's engaged nationally by the RFU with key personnel from the same management tier (n=19), and all RDO's engaged nationally by the RFU (n=59). The system of rugby organisation on school level in the United

Kingdom is influenced by the RFU, unlike other countries, such as South Africa and Australia, where school rugby has its own independent structure.

Written consent was obtained by the RFU for all such personnel to take part in the study. The aims of the study were endorsed and accepted by the RFU and The University College Plymouth (Marjon), where the key leadership workshops were housed.

1.3.2.2 Test battery

The study population (n=78) completed electronic and workshop diagnostics in relation to the leadership effectiveness of each RRDM (and other similarly ranked coach, community and referee development managers) in terms of: Leadership Style Inventory (Leadership Styles) (Northouse, 1997), Competency Portfolio (Leadership competencies, clustered under leadership/problem solving/personal effectiveness/interpersonal effectiveness) (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b; Barclays Competencies profile, 2002) and Organisational Climate Survey (Hay Acquisition Company, 2000; Hay McBer, 1998; Fey & Beamish, 2001).

360 degree feedback processes (such as the leadership styles inventory and the competency portfolio) were employed. In the case of the former, for example, the multi-rater survey provides leaders with a profile of their leadership styles in six dimensions, and the genesis of the work with the Hay Group tested the surveys with 215 organisations and 10234 leaders across all management levels, industries and functions. The profile of each RFU personnel was compared with a representative sample of the Hay worldwide database, and transformed into percentiles which could be compared with other organisations. Similarly, the organisational climate survey employed was normed against a data base of 12457 participants and 262 organisations.

A full description of the Test Battery is provided in Chapter 3.

1.3.2.3 Procedures and research methods

Once approval had been granted by the RFU, the testing procedures commenced as follows;

A leadership styles inventory (Northouse, 1997), competency portfolio and organisational climate survey were undertaken by electronic diagnostics in the quest to test, refine and validate the data collected to ensure that competencies are identified which truly differentiate superior performance within the RFU.

Data analysed and the interview results will result in outline competency frameworks for leadership styles.

1.3.2.4 Statistical data processing

Statistical software was employed for the data analysis e.g. SPSS, and measures of central tendency are exhibited. The data was then examined looking at the skew and kurtosis of the variables in order to achieve a sense of how it was distributed in an attempt to determine the extent to which leadership styles and leadership competencies, in tandem with organisational climate, contribute to effective leadership.

1.3.2.5 Ethical aspects

This study was conducted with the full support of the Rugby Football Union, namely the National Rugby Development Manager and the National Training Manager. All participants were able to influence the work, and the wishes of those who did not want to participate were respected. Future development of the work will remain visible and open to others, and permission will be obtained before making observations or examining documents produced for other purposes. The researcher accepted responsibility for maintaining confidentiality in the final writing of this thesis.

CHAPTER 2

LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND CONCEPTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The terms leadership and management are often used synonymously, and whilst there are clear overlaps between the terms, there are key distinctions between the two. Zaleznik (1977:14) sought to clarify the difference between the terms on the basis that it was not possible to develop individuals as both effective leaders and effective managers, not least because he argued that managers and leaders were different types of people with different motives, personal histories and different ways of thinking and acting. He differentiated on the basis of four key elements. Attitudes towards goals – managers view goals impersonally, aligning them with organisational necessities. Leaders, however, adopt a personal approach to goals, reflecting their own visions and strongly held beliefs. Conceptions of work – managers view work as an enabling process, involving strategy formulation, decision making, planning, negotiating, rewarding and coercing. Leaders develop new ways of tackling problems and convey their ideas through images that excite and inspire. Relation with others – managers like to work with people but prefer to maintain a low level of emotional involvement in their relationship with others. In contrast, leaders relate to people in a more emotional and intuitive way. As a result, leaders generate strong feelings, both positive and negative, in their people. Sense of self – managers are those people whose early lives have been relatively straightforward and who have been required to make only minor adjustments to life in the process of growing up. Managers are therefore more suited to roles where they are required to strengthen the existing organisation and the exercise of duty and responsibility. Leaders, in contrast, have struggled in their early lives to achieve a sense of order and have developed through personal learning in the face of adversity. They are therefore individuals who seek change.

2.1.1 Leaders and managers

Kouzes and Posner (1987:27) put the case that managers get others to do whilst

leaders get others to want to do. Bennis (1987:44) saw distinctions between leaders and managers from the perspective of the differences between those who master a context and those who surrender to it. He put the case that the leader is innovative and an original, whilst the manager administers and copies. Crucially, he cites leaders as focusing on people, having a vision and being their own person, whilst managers focused on systems and structures, exhibited limited vision and were 'classic good soldiers'. Covey (1990:133) illustrates that leadership and management are not synonymous by applying the terms to family life. Without management within a family, he feels that there are no established systems or procedures and that there is role conflict and ambiguity, but without leadership there is no change, and resistance can therefore harden leading to rigid bureaucracy. Kotter (1990:8) describes leadership and management as two distinctive and complementary systems of action, each with its own function and characteristic activities. The notion that strong leaders do not necessarily make strong managers is to the fore. Management is about coping with complexity and good management should encompass bringing order and consistency to key elements such as quality and profitability within organisations. Leadership is about coping with change in a world becoming increasingly competitive and volatile. The function of both leadership and management involves deciding what needs to be done and the creation of networks of people and relationships that can achieve targets, and seeks to ensure that personnel actually do their job. Kotter (1990:32) suggests that the elements of leadership and management accomplish these tasks in different ways. Managers deal with complexity by setting targets or goals for the future and establish detailed stages for achieving such targets by devolving resource to accomplish these plans. Leaders set directions by developing a vision of the future in tandem with strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve the vision. Fairholm (1991:40) believed that leadership and management are different in purpose, knowledge base, required skills and goals. He felt that leaders were more personal in their orientation to groups members than managers, and that they were more global in their thinking. Managers were deemed to focus on control and results, and that leaders valued cooperation and not just coordination. Indeed, leaders fostered ideas of unity, equality, justice and fairness in addition to efficiency and effectiveness, the bastions of management values. Hess and Siciliano (1996:7) view management as the coordination of human, material, technological and financial resources necessary for an organisation to reach its goals. Hooper and Potter (1997:6) suggest that leadership concerns itself with creating

positive feelings on the part of those who are lead, emphasising inspiration as opposed to control, and with unlocking potential instead of issuing demands. Northouse (1997:11) promotes differences between the terms by suggesting that management traditionally focuses on the activities of planning, organising, staffing and controlling as opposed to leadership which emphasises an influence process. He suggests that the common element relates to how both leadership and management influence a group of individuals in goal attainment. Hooper and Potter (1997:11) take a different stance and suggest that leadership is concerned with vision, direction and change, whilst management is about maintaining and controlling the status quo. Management often focuses on objectives whilst leadership is concerned with inner motivation and values. Bennis (1999:25) famously distinguishes between leaders and managers as follows: "The manager administers; the leader motivates", "The manager has his or her eye on the bottom line; the leader has his or her eye on the horizon". "The manager maintains; the leader develops". "The manager asks how and when; the leader asks what and why".

2.1.2 Leadership vs. management

Later thoughts on this issue come from Daft (1999) who compares leadership to management in five areas crucial to the performance of an organisation i.e. providing direction, aligning employees, building relationships, personal qualities and leader outcomes, as illustrated below:

COMPARING MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

	Management	**Leadership**
Direction:	Planning and budgeting Keeping eye on bottom line	Creating vision and strategy Keeping eye on horizon
Alignment:	Organising and staffing Directing and controlling Create boundaries	Creating shared culture and values Helping others grow Reduce boundaries
Relationships:	Focusing on objects – producing /selling goods and services Based on position power Acting as boss	Focusing on people – inspiring and motivating followers Based on personal power Acting as coach, facilitator, servant

Personal Qualities:	Emotional distance Expert mind Talking Conformity Insight into organisation	Emotional connections (Heart) Open mind (Mindfulness) Listening (Communication) Nonconformity (Courage) Insight into self (Integrity)
Outcomes:	Maintains stability	Creates change, often radical change

SOURCES: John P. Kotter, *Leading Change* (Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press, 1996), 26: Joseph C. Rost, *Leadership for the Twenty-first Century*, (Westport, CN: Praeger, 1993), 149; and Brian Dumaine, "The New Non-Manager Managers," *Fortune*, February 22, 1993, 80-84.

Table 2.1: Comparing Leadership and Management (Daft, 1999).

In the new millennium Cranwell-Ward *et al.* (2002:61) relate to the HEAD and the HEART:

Management (resource/process) HEAD	Leadership (creative/inspiring) HEART
Agreed goals	Vision
Preparation and planning	Values
Communication management	Recognition
Review	Motivation
Control management	Shared purpose
Roles	Support and trust
Discipline	Humour/fun
Feedback 1:1	Performance focus
Sound management procedures	Shared leadership

Table 2.2: Head vs Heart (Cranwell-Ward *et al.*, 2002)

Prewitt (2003:59) reinforces this by stating that leaders are known for behaviours that do not necessarily conform with the formal authority of a management position:

- Leaders focus on envisioning the organisation's future while the manager executes for today's objectives.

- Leaders strategise a course for achieving goals while managers align the resources needed to run the race.

- Leaders inspire followers and motivate them to excel while managers give orders, enforce them, and monitor progress.

- Leaders think holistically, systemically, and strategically while managers attend to the details and tactics.

Thus, leadership is attached to specific behaviours, not organisational positions or titles, and the differing characteristics of leadership and management are rationalised as follows:

Characteristic	Management	Leadership
Function	Organise, plan, budget, control, evaluate	Mission, vision, values, culture
Power base	Formal	Personal
Focus	Resource allocation	Human motivation
Approach	Objective	Emotional
Status	Static, assigned	Fluid, earned
Dependence	Higher power to assign	Followers, respect, trust
Purpose	Maintain stability	Introduce change
Serves	Status quo	Evolution, adaptation

Table 2.3: Differing Characteristics of Leadership and Management (Prewitt, 2000).

Kumari *et al.* (2005:139) distinguish between leadership and management in terms of attitudes toward goals, conceptions of work, relationships with others and sense of self.

In terms of attitudes towards goals, they believe that a manager has an impersonal, passive, functional attitude believing that such goals arise out of necessity and reality, whilst the leader has a personal and active attitude, believing that goals arise from desire and imagination. The manager views work as an enabling process that combines people and ideas, seeking moderate risk through co-ordination and balance, whilst the leader looks for fresh solutions to old problems, seeks high risk positions, especially with high financial rewards. The manager avoids solitary work activity whilst the leader courts it, and the manager accepts life as it is whilst the leader questions it. Gilbert (2005:20) believes that leadership must be twinned with management in that a leader should look at the horizon, whilst the manager surveys the bottom line. He draws an analogy with that of a ship being sound and well supplied and thus well managed, as opposed to the leadership of the vessel being pathfinding, setting the direction and inspiring people in difficult times. Taffinder (2006:13) simply presents a distinction between leadership and management as follows. Leaders take risks, seek opportunities, change organisational rules, provide something to believe in and inspire achievement. Managers control risks, react, enforce organisational rules, seek and then follow direction and co-ordinate effort.

2.1.3 Defining leadership and management

Hughes *et al.* (2006:9) suggest that management encompasses efficiency, planning, paperwork, procedures, regulations, control and consistency, and they allude to a world that is over-managed and underled. A manager's limited vision, focus on administrative procedures and structures distinguishes between an effective leader who exhibits vision, is innovative and develops people. In other words, a manager focuses on objectives whilst the leader strives for vision, direction and change. Leadership is about setting a new direction or vision for a group that they follow, and the leader is at the forefront. Management controls or directs people and/or staff in a group, acting around a set of principles or values that have already been established. When leadership occurs without management, a direction or vision is set for others to follow, but little or no consideration has been given to how the vision or new direction will be achieved. Gerzon (2006:9) purports to a type of leadership he calls management where managerial leaders are imprisoned by their own job definition. Such leaders can only solve the increasingly rare kind of conflict that requires nothing more than a unilateral

decision. When management occurs without leadership, resources are controlled to maintain the status quo or to ensure that established plans are implemented, but no new change or direction occurs. Working in harmony, new visions and directions can be set, and the resources managed to achieve them. Indeed Hughes et. al. (2006: 392) present a modern perspective on the leadership versus management debate as follows:

Leadership = Change	Management = Control
Vision	Plan
Inspire	Reward
Empower	Direct
Coach	Train
Revenues	Expenses
Forecasts	Budgets
Possibilities	Systems and procedures
Opportunity	Schedule
Synergy	Coordinate

Table 2.4: Leadership versus Management (Hughes *et al.*, 2006)

In summary, Buckingham (2005:72) promotes the view that great leaders tap into the needs and fears we all share whilst great managers perform their 'magic' by discovering, developing and celebrating what's different about each person who works for them. Smith (2006:18) believes that the quality of our lives, in all contexts, is dependent on how well each of us is able to lead and manage, which is in turn dependent on the quality of our thinking and the quality of our relationships in all contexts.

2.2 THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

Daft (1999:5) acknowledges that defining leadership is a complex and elusive problem largely because the nature of leadership is complex. Indeed, Smith (1991:225) rightly suggests that part of the problem is caused by different authors and researchers using different terms for the same or similar concept(s). Exacerbating the issue are the views

of researchers such as Meindl *et al.* (1985) who have suggested that leadership was nothing more than a romantic myth, perhaps based in the false hope that someone will come along and solve our problems by force. Higgs (2003:273) relates that for centuries we have been obsessed with leaders, and with identifying the characteristics required for effective leadership. In more recent times the area of leadership has been studied more extensively than almost any other aspect of human behaviour. Many researchers such as Goffee and Jones (2007) have pointed out that, in spite of the plethora of studies, we still seem to know little about the defining characteristics of effective leadership. Indeed the same researchers estimated that in 1999 alone, over 2000 books were published on the topic of leadership. Indeed, Kondo (2002:147) puts the case that leadership is not just a matter of coercion. It does not consist of separating the planning and execution functions so that leaders draw up the plans and then compel their subordinates to carry them out. Leadership means convincing one's subordinates to accept the group's common aims and to go all out to achieve them. The specific functions of leadership therefore include: persuading subordinates to accept the common aims of the group and agree that they are worthwhile; starting with themselves; displaying tenacity and patience while the goals are being approached; and guiding, developing, and encouraging subordinates. Newman and Chaharbaghi (2000:64) believe that the sheer emotional response to the term leadership can be so strong that it overwhelms any rational discussion of the term. Tirmizi (2002:269) simply believes that leadership is a subject that has long excited interest among people and that it is probably one of the world's oldest preoccupations. The study of leaders and leadership is coterminous with civilization. It is a universal phenomenon in the sense that it manifests itself on one form or another across different organisational and national contexts.

2.2.1 Theoretical and practical context for leadership

Avery (2004:7) proposes that any definition of leadership needs to be sound both in theory and practice, whilst also able to withstand changing terms and circumstances whilst being comprehensive and integrative. He views that finding a single definition is probably naïve, because of the following reasons. Leadership is not a concrete entity, but is more appropriately regarded as a social construction that occurs in a historical and cultural context, and within the minds of the people involved. So, to understand

how concepts of leadership emerge, it is important to identify how people think about leadership and the psychological models they employ. Different people see leadership reflected in different situations, depending on what the perceiver believes leadership is all about, as the examples above illustrate. Ideas about leadership are affected by concepts of leadership held within a particular culture or other context in which people find themselves. Without a context, people tend to hold command-and-control as their basic leadership model. The study of leadership is rife with myths bearing little relationship to reality. This does not help advance the field. Leadership myths include the idea of heroic leaders who can solve all organisational problems, often single-handedly. According to other myths, leadership is a rare skill, leaders are born with special characteristics, leadership occurs mainly at the top of an organisation, and effective leaders control and command others. Another myth is that leaders work mainly for the good of their organisation, but clearly, inept or malicious leaders do not benefit their group. Some leaders work to enhance their own ends. History has judged Hitler as a leader working towards evil outcomes, although he clearly employed many widely used leadership practices. The idea of the heroic leader abounds. Intellectually, it is evident that the lone heroic leader cannot continue to exist in today's complex, dynamic organisations, no matter how talented and gifted. Even as founder and major stockholder in Microsoft, Bill Gates does not lead the organisation single-handedly, nor can he command people to be creative and committed to the organisation.

Sadler (1997:22) proposed that leadership is a powerful word, capable of conveying much more than can be contained within a concise definition and capable of meaning many different things to different audiences in different contexts. He believed that one of the problems that occurs frequently in the literature on the subject is the natural and understandable, but potentially misleading, focus on truly great leaders – people of the stature of Gandhi, J.F. Kennedy, Winston Churchill, Martin Luther King, Nelson Mandela, or Charles de Gaulle. Indeed the lay conception of leadership has long been focused on the actions of major historical figures such as Churchill, Ghandi and Hitler (Smith and Peterson, 1998:2). Stogdill (1974) undertook one of the most comprehensive approaches ever to define leadership, identifying over one hundred and sixty different definitions and categorised them into ten types. A synopsis of such types is illustrated in Hooper and Potter (1997:7) where the first of Stogdill's definitions suggests the leader is essentially the focal point of a group process. The second refers

to personality and its effects on the individual followers. This is often called the 'charismatic approach'. On a more sinister level, the third group of definitions presents the idea that leadership is the art of inducing compliance, while the fourth softens this idea to the exercise of influence, which is more socially acceptable. The fifth group reflects much of the research on leadership carried out in universities in the United States during the 1960's and 1970's, a considerable amount of which looked at leadership performance on the basis of behaviour. As we will see later, even the most complex leadership models can usually be reduced to two aspects of behaviour: task behaviour and relationship behaviour. Many behavioural scientists feel that the only way to assess leadership performance is through the objective analysis of observed behaviour rather than subjective perceptions. The sixth group of definitions relating to goal achievement has a close link to what many organisations are doing in terms of creating mission and vision statements. The idea of the leader creating a goal or vision to be achieved and then leading the group towards the achievement of that desired situation is a very basic notion of what leadership is all about. The seventh group of definitions relate to the link between leadership and persuasion, which is more subtle than inducing compliance in that the leader influences beliefs and hence behaviour. The eighth group of definitions refers back to the first, suggesting that leadership is concerned with the effects of interaction between the leader and the followers. The ninth group focuses on the idea of the leadership role being differentiated from the rest of the group, with symbols such as badges of rank, different clothing and so on. The final approach considers that leadership involves creating structure in a social system and harnessing resources. In some respects, this tenth group of definitions forms the link between leadership and management which in itself is an interesting issue. In practical terms, many people talk about leaders 'getting a grip on a situation'. This relates to the idea of gaining control, organising resources, including people, and producing positive outcomes, the basis of what most people call 'management' (see 2.1).

2.2.2 Relationship between leader and follower

Berry and Cartwright (2000) argue that leadership is simply a process of seduction to draw people into commitment to an organisation. Kouzes and Posner (1987:1) simply suggests that leadership is a relationship between leader and follower, and that a

leader's primary contribution relates to the recognition of good ideas, the support of such ideas, and the willingness to challenge a system in the quest to achieve new products, processes and services. Cranwell-Ward *et al.* (2002:65) summarise five practices of leadership. The first is challenging the process where leaders encourage others to come up with new ideas and new ways of approaching their job, problems and processes in the organisation. They encourage experimentation and innovation, which also implies they are prepared to take judicious risks. Secondly inspiring a shared vision where leaders create a dream, a vision about the future. They have a desire to change the way things are and to inspire others by finding out what their dreams, hopes and aspirations are and articulating a vision which enables all to see how all will be served by a common underlying purpose. The third process entails enabling others to act where leaders realise that they cannot achieve the vision on their own, so they seek and enlist the support and involvement of others. They also encourage collaboration, co-operation, building teams and empowering others. Others may not only include staff whom they manage but also their managers, customers and suppliers. The penultimate process is modelling the way where leaders must encourage the management process of planning and reviewing how progress is going and taking corrective action. In so doing they must also behave in a way which gains the respect and trust of others. They have considerable integrity since they are clear about their values and act in a manner consistent with them. Finally, encouraging a culture where leaders realise that achieving the vision is exhausting and at times frustrating. They maintain morale by recognising and celebrating others' achievements and by signalling how much they believe in and value their staff. Their expectations are positive and their praise genuine. Reinforcing this is the view of Gilbert (2005:8) that leadership is the process of moving a group (or groups) in some direction through mostly non –coercive means.

Sadler (1997:22) drew reference to a distinction between the idea of leadership as a personal quality and the idea of leadership as a process which can be observed taking place in the context of organisational or group behaviour. This is an important distinction, to which should be added the ideas of leadership as a role and also as a collective noun as when we speak about 'the leadership of British industry'. Thus an organisational leadership role such as chief executive may or may not be filled by a leader (i.e. a person with leadership qualities) and, in consequence, leadership acts or processes may or may not take place. Sadler (1997:23) suggested that this distinction

between the various meanings of the word is not simply a case of being pedantic; it carries practical implications. For example, if it is said of an organisation that it is lacking in leadership, the remedy may be sought in different ways. Is the organisation attracting and developing persons with leadership qualities (leaving aside for the time being what is meant by this)? Is the organisation creating roles which include the expectation that leadership will be among the competences required? Are there barriers within the structures, systems or culture of the organisation which are hostile to the exercise of leadership? Are the people who are currently occupying leadership roles failing to provide leadership? From this it follows that the study of leadership cannot be validly carried on from a purely psychological perspective. It must include study of the decision-making processes and functioning of organisations (see 2.8).

Rost (1991:102) sees leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their shared purposes. Rosenbach and Taylor (1993:8) promote the view that leadership involves facilitating a situation where people work together to make things happen that might not otherwise occur. Two years later DuBrin (1995:6) noted that some 30,000 research articles, periodical articles and books had been written in the twentieth century alone which included leadership definitions that simply implied it as an act causing others to act or respond in a shared direction, to the art of influencing people by persuasion or the principle dynamic force that motivates and coordinates people. Leadership was also seen as an interpersonal influence, directed that communication toward a goal attainment, and an influential involvement over and above mechanical compliance with direction and orders. Northouse (1997:3) simply views leadership as involving the influence of a group of individuals who have a common purpose. Pierce and Newstrom (2006:23) recognise this and refer to a concept of leadership being realised in a process whereby one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality of others.

2.2.3 Five aspects of leadership

Sadler (1997:31) previously suggested that researchers should recognise five aspects of the phenomenon of leadership in any quest to define the term. The first is that it is a complex process with behavioural, relational and situational aspects. Secondly, that it exists, as well as in the leader, in the dyadic, group and organisational relationships.

Thirdly, it can stem from lower organisational levels as well as top-down. Fourthly, it occurs both internally, in leader-subordinate interactions, and externally, in the situations environment and finally, that it motivates people intrinsically by improving expectations as well as extrinsically by manipulating reward systems. A more recent perspective by Hughes *et al.* (2006:12) is articulated more simply by their alluding to the 'ideal' leader as an honest, competent, independent and cooperative phenomenon.

Crainer (1996:12) decided to classify approaches to the study of leadership by referring to the following categories, i.e.

Great Man Theories. Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The misleading nature of this approach has already been mentioned.

Trait Theories. The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life.

Power and Influence Approaches. These focus on the exercise of power and influence and assume the centralisation of decision making and a passive role for subordinates.

Behaviourist Theories. Concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practising managers.

Situational Leadership. This approach sees leadership as relatively specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, military leadership may demand skills, qualities and behaviours which differ from those associated with successful leadership in industry or the Church.

Contingency Theory. This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances.

Transactional Theory. This approach emphasis the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.

Attribution Theory. Here the emphasis is on the power of the followers and the factors which cause them to attribute leadership to a particular person.

Transformational Theory. The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance.

Hughes et. al. (2006:6) promote the case that there is no single correct definition of leadership, and that a variety of definitions can actually help researchers appreciate the multitude of factors that affect leadership, as well as offer different perspectives from which to view it. Indeed, they view leadership as being both a science and an art, emphasising the subject as being a field of scholarly activity. Pierce and Newstrom (2006:8) take that the view that a leader is the result of a confluence of a person, a group, and the needs arising from a situation found by each other. Mayo and Nohria (2005) promote the view that a leader's long term success is not derived from the sheer force of personality or breadth and depth of skill. In fact Pierce and Newstrom (2006:5) provide a visual and conceptual framework around which an understanding of leadership and the leadership process can be gleaned (Figure 2.1 below).

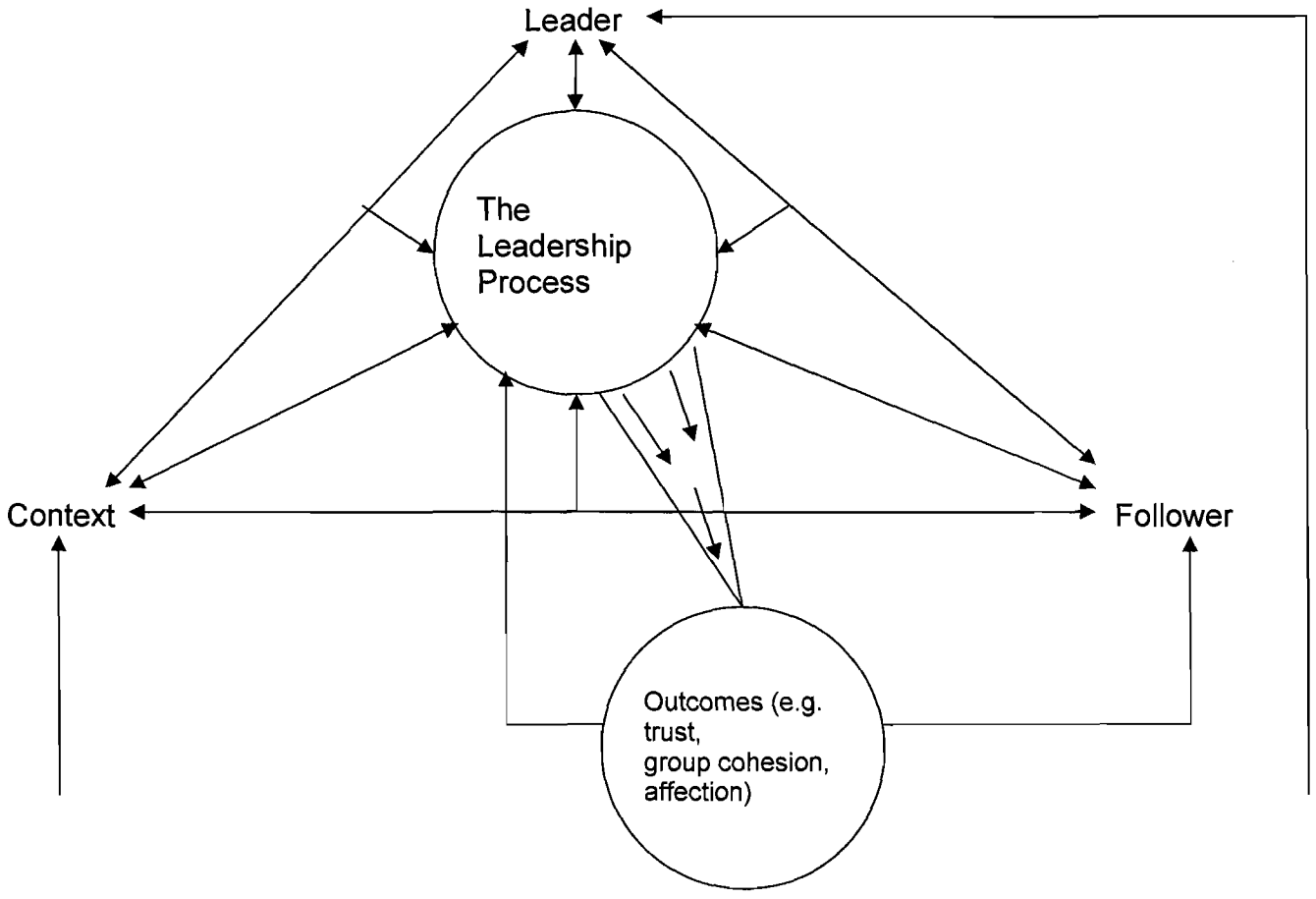


Figure 2.1: Leadership and Leadership Process (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006)

There are five elements to the above which are summarised as follows:

- The *leader* is the person who takes charge and guides the performance or activity.
- The *follower(s)* is a person who performs under the guidance and instructions of a leader.
- The *context* is the situation – formal or informal, social or work, dynamic or static, emergency or routine, complex or simple, and so on – surrounding a leader-follower relationship.
- The *process* reflects that which is embedded in the act of leadership. Process is multidimensional in nature and consists of leading, following, the assumption and surrender of power to define the situation, the provision of guidance toward goal attainment, exchanges, and the building of relationships (e.g. trust, respect, working).
- *Outcomes* can include nearly anything arising from interplay between the leader-follower and leader-situation (context), such as respect for an able leader's decisions, goal attainment, customer satisfaction, high-quality products, or animosity resulting from a punitive leader's actions.

In defining leadership, Taffinder (2006:13) refers to an action of committing employees to contribute their best to the purpose of an organisation. He believes that leaders generate critical mass, and get staff to take action and decisions rather than just think or talk about it. Pierce and Newstrom (2006: 8) refer to the 'multiple definitions' attached to the construct of leadership, proclaiming that the skew diversity of definitions reveals the complexity of such a construct. They criticise the fact that some researchers/authors treat leadership as a psychological phenomenon, others view it as a sociological phenomenon. Boyatzis et. al. (2002:18) believe that theories of leadership can only become more holistic and comprehensive if they incorporate psychophysiological interactions, whilst Gerzon (2006: 8) focuses on the rules of a leader from a sociological standpoint.

2.3 KEY CONCEPTS ASSOCIATED WITH LEADERSHIP STYLES

A key concept related to leadership is that of leadership styles. Early research on the notion of leadership styles was conducted by White and Lippett (1959:17) who considered the two basic styles of autocratic and democratic styles, which are often considered as task-orientated and relationship orientated styles. The reality is that most leaders exhibit behaviour as a variable running along a continuum. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958:102) actually suggested four leadership styles along a continuum. The autocratic leader who takes the decisions and announces them, expecting subordinates to carry them out without question. The second style relates to the persuasive leader who at this point on the scale also takes all the decisions for the group without discussion or consultation, but believes that people will be better motivated if they are persuaded that the decisions are good ones. The third style relates to consultative leadership. The significant feature of consultative leadership is that the leader confers with the group members *before* taking decisions and, in fact, considers their advice and their feelings when framing decisions. Finally the democratic style, where the leader would characteristically lay the problem before his or her subordinates and invite discussion. The leader's role is that of conference leader, or chair, rather than of decision taker. He or she will allow the decision to emerge out of the process of group discussions, instead of imposing it on the group as its boss.

2.3.1 Leadership vs leadership styles

Hersey and Blanchard (1969:11) undertook research in the quest to identify the most important variables in establishing what 'leadership' style actually meant. They promoted the following distinction between 'Leadership' and 'Leadership Styles'.

- Leadership: 'An influence process, working with and through others to accomplish the goals of the organisation'.

- Leadership Styles: 'The pattern of behaviour that you use with others as perceived by them'.

Hersey and Blanchard (1969:29) suggested that leadership style is determined by two independent categories of behaviour, namely 'directive' behaviour that focuses on tasks

and 'supportive' behaviour which emphasis the building of relationships. Leaders employing 'directive' behaviours, set goals and objectives, plan and organise work schedules, communicate priorities', clarify roles and responsibilities, determine evaluation criteria and standards, check work', and show or tell subordinates how to do a specific task. Leaders employing 'supportive' behaviours, listen to problems (job or non-job related), give praise and encouragement, invite input and suggestions, give information about the organisation, facilitate problem solving and disclose information about themselves.

2.3.2 Distinguishing between leadership styles

Such behaviours suggested above prompts Blanchard *et al.* (1985:36) to promote four distinctive leadership styles:

- **Style 1: Directing**. The leader provides specific instructions and closely supervises task accomplishment.

- **Style 2: Coaching**. The leader continues to direct and closely supervise task accomplishment, but also explains decisions, solicits suggestions, and supports progress.

- **Style 3: Supporting**. The leader facilitates and supports subordinates' efforts toward task accomplishment and shares responsibility for decision-making with them.

- **Style 4: Delegating**. The leader turns over responsibility for decision-making and problem-solving to subordinates.

Such a styles approach is illustrated by the Situational Leadership Model (overleaf) of Blanchard *et al.* (1985).

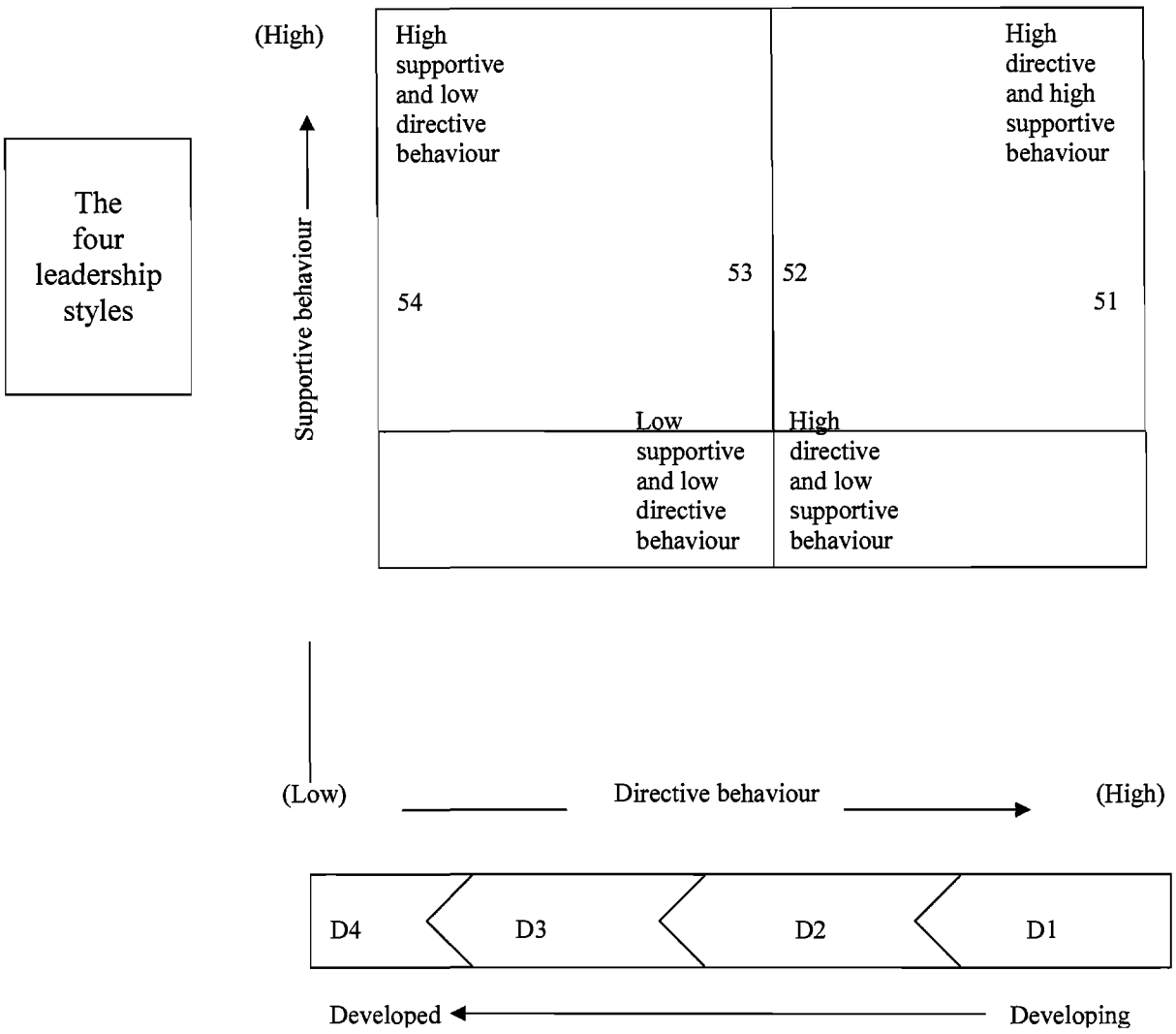


Figure 2.2: Situational Leadership Model (Blanchard *et al.*, 1985).

The *'directing style'*: high direction, low support

For a person who is willing but lacks competence (Development Level 1). The leader who uses the directing style actively organises and directs the work of others and makes each person accountable for specific activities and outcomes. Motivation is achieved by clear objectives of what needs to be done, when and how.

The *'coaching style'*: high direction, high support

For a person who has developed some competence but where motivation or confidence is low (Development Level 2). Here, the leader sets high but realistic standards, explaining what needs to be done and why. People are motivated from receiving feedback and having a high level of personal involvement in the work.

The *'supportive style'*: low direction, high support

With the supporting style the leader recognised and praises good work. They are open, supportive and appreciative and motivate people by allowing them to structure their own work. This style is appropriate for the person who has high competence but whose motivation or confidence is low (Development Level 3).

The *'delegating style'*: low direction, low support

Here, the leader assigns tasks and responsibilities and allows people room to follow their initiative. The leader monitors results and motivates people by allowing them control and showing respect. This style is appropriate for the person who has high competence coupled with high motivation and confidence (Development Level 4).

In the same era that Blanchard *et al.* (1985:36) suggested four distinctive leadership styles, Quinn (1988) also presented a model of competent leadership styles based on four quadrants that represent four different sets of leadership or organisational orientations created by two dimensions: structure (flexibility vs stability) and focus (internal vs external) (overleaf).

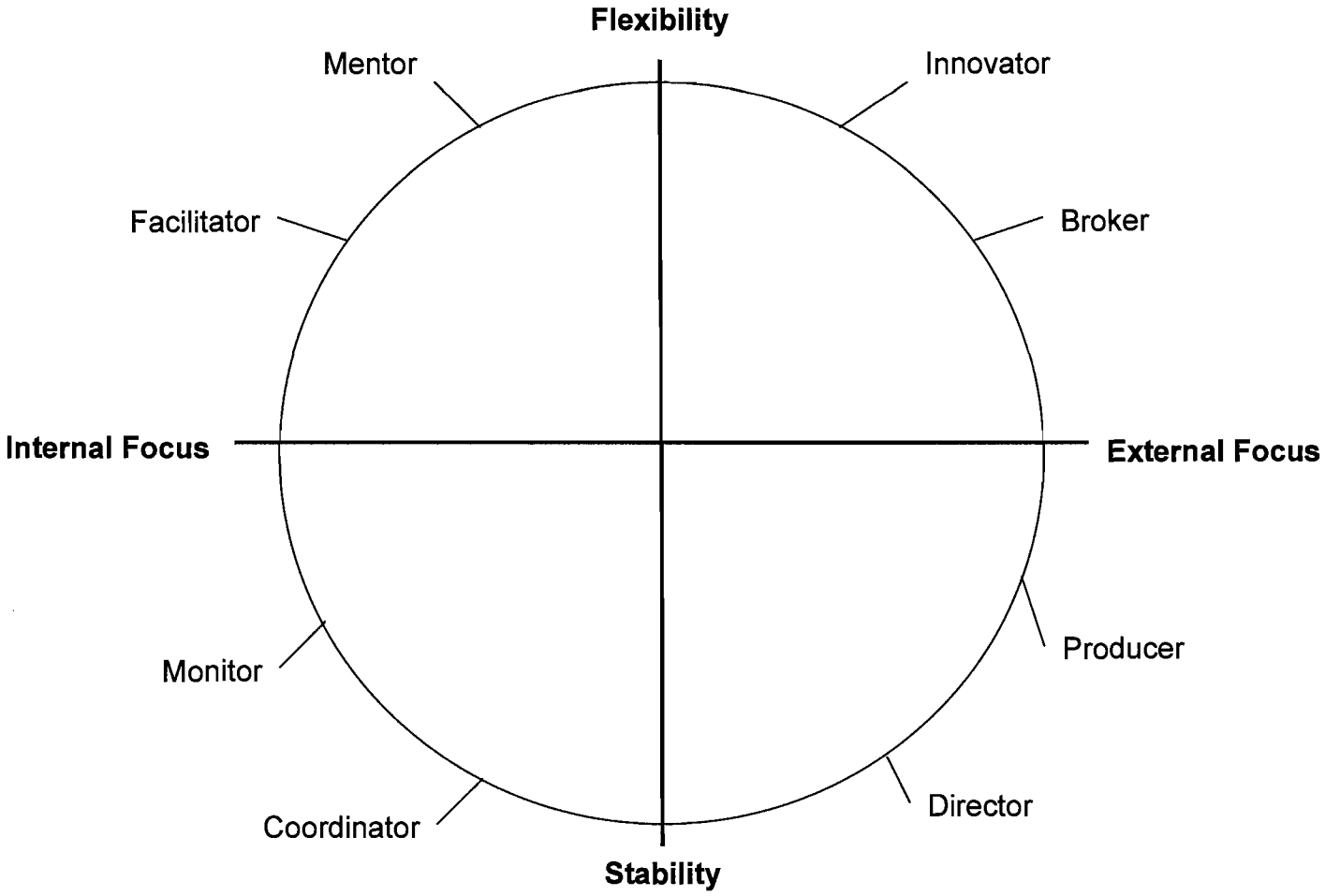


Figure 2.3: Model of Competent Leadership Styles (Quinn, 1988).

On the vertical continuum of the above structure, leaders may have an orientation emphasizing either flexibility or stability. Similarly, leaders may display either an internal or an external emphasis on the horizontal continuum. This results in four models of leadership style models:

1. the open system model (an emphasis on flexibility and external focus);

2. the rational model (an emphasis on stability and external focus);

3. the internal process model (an emphasis on stability and internal focus);

4. the human relation model (an emphasis on flexibility and internal focus).

Murphy (2005:182) draws a most recent reference to the notion of leadership styles by eluding to the fact that recent research the authoritative, affiliative, democratic and coaching styles are the most effective leadership styles in relation to others.

2.3.3 Leadership roles

Within the framework of his theoretical model, Quinn (1988) identified eight leadership roles – innovator, broker, producer, director, coordinator, monitor, facilitator, and mentor roles – with two roles pertaining to each of the four quadrants. These eight roles characteristics are described in the table below:

Leadership roles	Characteristics
The open system model	
Innovator role	Creative Envisions, encourages and facilitates changes
Broker role	Politically astute Acquires resources Maintains the unit's external legitimacy through the development, scanning and maintenance of a network of external contacts
The rational goal model	
Producer role	The task oriented, work-focused Seeks closure and outcome oriented
Director role	Engages in goal setting and role clarification Sets objectives and establishes clear expectations
The internal process model	
Coordinator role – maintains structure	Does the scheduling, coordinating and problem solving Sees that rules and standards are met
Monitor role	Collects and distributes information Checks on performance Provides a sense of continuity and stability

The human relation model	
Facilitator role	Encourages the expression of opinions Seeks consensus Negotiates compromise
Mentor role	Is aware of individual needs Listens actively and is fair Supports legitimate requests and attempts to facilitate the development of individuals

Table 2.5: Leadership Roles (Quinn, 1988).

Blanchard *et al.* (1985:47) state that no one leadership style is correct. They stress that each style is effective according to a particular situation. This is reinforced by Cranwell-Ward *et al.* (2002:17) who promote the notion that effective leadership is hinged on selecting the right style for the right situation and executing the given style well.

2.3.4 Hay McBer perspective

Similar research by Hay McBer (1998:2) over a number of years has also illustrated that leadership styles are important because of their direct impact on how individuals within a particular team feel, and the degree to which they are motivated to perform at higher levels. They claim that leadership styles seemingly mean the patterns of behaviour a leader adopts to plan, organise, motivate and control, and it is the extent to which the leader listens, sets goals and standards, develops action plans, directs others and gives feedback. Leadership styles are deemed to be a function of a leader's personal characteristics (e.g. personality, values, characteristics), the styles a leader has witnessed and experienced others using, and the specific management situations and people the leader deals with most. Leadership styles impact on staff performance by creating the environment in which staff work, which in turn influences the staff's discretionary effort. There is no one best style. Covey (1990:103) believes that the leader who controls others through fear (coercive style) will find that the control is reactive and temporary. For the purposes of this study, Hay McBer's following six terms in relation to leadership styles will resonate i.e.

1. THE COERCIVE (DIRECTIVE) STYLE

Primary Objective: Immediate Compliance

- Gives lots of directives and telling people what to do
- Expects immediate staff compliance
- Controls tightly, through close monitoring
- Relies on negative, corrective feedback
- Motivates by stating the negative consequences of non-compliance

2. THE AUTHORITATIVE (VISIONARY) STYLE

Primary Objective: Providing long-term direction and vision for staff.

- Develops and articulates a clear vision
- Solicits staff perspective on the vision, without surrendering authority
- Sees selling the vision as a key part of the leaders' job
- Persuades staff by explaining the 'whys' behind the vision
- Sets standards and monitors performance in relation to the larger vision
- Uses a balance of positive and negative feedback

3. THE AFFILIATIVE STYLE

Primary Objective: Creating harmony among staff and between leaders and staff.

- Promotes friendly interactions among staff
- Placed less emphasis on task directions, goals and standards than meeting staff's emotional needs
- Pays attention and cares for 'the whole person' and stresses things that keep people happy
- Identifies opportunities for positive feedback but avoids performance-related confrontations
- Rewards personal characteristics as much as job performance

4. THE DEMOCRATIC STYLE

Primary Objective: Building commitment among staff and generating new ideas.

- Trusts that staff have the capability to develop the appropriate direction for themselves and the organisation
- Invites staff to make decisions affecting their work
- Reaches by consensus
- Holds many meetings and listens to staff's concerns
- Rewards adequate performance and rarely gives negative feedback

5. THE PACESETTING STYLE

Primary Objective: Accomplishing tasks to high standards of excellence.

- Leads by example or 'modelling'
- Has high standards and expects others to know the rationale behind what is being modelled
- Is apprehensive about delegating
- Takes responsibility for tasks away from the member of staff if high performance is not forthcoming
- Has little sympathy for poor performance
- Gives detailed task instruction when staff experience difficulties
- Sees co-ordination with others only as it impacts the immediate task

6. THE COACHING STYLE

Primary Objective: Long-term professional development of staff.

- Helps staff identify their unique strengths and weaknesses in the light of their aspirations
- Encourages staff to establish long-term development goals
- Reaches agreement with staff on both the leader's and their own roles in the development process
- Provides on-going advice and feedback to facilitate staff development
- May trade off immediate standards of performance for long-term development

Northouse (1997:51) highlights several strengths and weaknesses of the style approach to leadership. In positive terms, a wide range of studies (as previously highlighted)

supports the reliability of such an approach. It also includes the study of the behaviours of leaders rather than only their personal traits or characteristics, and it has a heuristic value as it provides a broad conceptual map which is useful for gleaning an understanding of one's own leadership behaviours. In negative terms, Northouse (1997:51) claims that researchers adopting the style approach have not been able to identify a universal set of leadership behaviours commensurate with effective leadership. This study however, seeks to promote the notion that individuals with the same job description can be expected to adopt similar leadership behaviours.

2.3.5 Traits and characteristics

Another key concept associated with leadership relates to the notion of traits and characteristics. Cacioppe (1997) points out that early research aimed at establishing if there were consistent and unique personality traits that all leaders possessed showed no definite pattern. Indeed, more recent studies (Kilpatrick and Locke, 1991) revealed six traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders; honesty and integrity, high energy level, intelligence and task relevant knowledge. Kouzes and Posner (1987) suggested that the six highest characteristics that leaders were most admired for were honesty, forward looking, inspiring, competent, fair-minded and supportive.

Hogan (1991:875) referred to traits as recurring regularities or trends in a person's behaviour. Badaracco (2006:8) suggests that effective leaders challenge their traits as much as their skills, and whilst such leaders learn and grow from meeting such challenges, it is only by asking difficult questions that they actually learn. This is reinforced by Quinn (2005:75) who suggests that leaders are at the 'top' of their game when they act from their deepest values and instincts. Pierce and Newstrom (2006:13) see leadership as an immutable aspect of personality.

Leadership traits have been the forms of research into effective leadership for over a century. By the mid-twentieth century, the trait approach was challenged by research that questioned the questioned the universality of leadership traits (Northouse, 1997:13). Stogdill (1948) conducted a major review which suggested that an individual with leadership traits that were effective in one context might not be an effective leader

in another context. Lord *et al.* (1986:407) proposed that personality traits were strongly associated with individuals' perceptions of leadership. Indeed, Kilpatrick and Locke (1991:52) claim that effective leaders are in fact distinct types of people. Relatively recent research by scholars such as Bennis and Nanus (1985:9), Nadler and Tushman (1989:136) and Bass (1990) illustrate a reviewed approach in the trait lead approach to leadership. Smith (1991:223) refers to the 'notable turn of opinion' back to specific traits and their impact on effective leadership.

This is encouraging given that Sadler (1997:28) felt that the 'trait' approach abandoned the attempt to link leadership qualities with particular individuals and involves listing a number of traits which are believed in general to relate to effective leadership. He put the case that empirical studies have failed to establish a link between effective leadership and any single trait or group of traits. Despite this, the trait approach is still very much favoured in popular treatments of the subject and employed in Chapter 3.

Northouse (1997:16) summarises the studies of leadership traits and characteristics concluded in the second half of the twentieth century as follows:

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1956)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader, & Alliger (1986)	Kilpatrick & Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Responsibility	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsibility		ability
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness		Task
Sociability		Tolerance		knowledge
		Influence		
		Sociability		

Table 2.6: Leadership Traits and Characteristics (Northouse, 1997).

He also cites a number of advantages to viewing leadership from a trait approach. First, it is intuitively appealing because it fits clearly into the popular idea that leaders are special people who are "out front", leading the way in society. Second, there is a great deal of research that validates the basis of this perspective. Third, by focusing exclusively on the leader, the trait approach provides an in-depth understanding of the leader component in the leadership process. Lastly, it has provided some benchmarks against which individuals can evaluate their own personal leadership attributes. Weaknesses of the trait approach are also cited by Northouse (1997:20). There is the failure of the trait approach to delimit a definitive list of leadership traits despite the vast amount of studies undertaken. Not least, the list of traits that has emerged is too great, and in analysing leadership traits, the approach had failed to take account of the impact of situations. Lists of the most important leadership traits have emerged, which are not always reinforced by secure research, and the trait approach is difficult to apply to training and development because individuals' personal attributes are relatively stable and embedded and not changed easily. Hughes *et al.* (2006:160) believe that traits are useful concepts for explaining why leaders can act fairly consistently from one situation to the next. Knowing how two leaders differ on a particular personality trait can help predict more accurately how they will tend to act in a variety of situations. In recent years researchers in the realm of personality have increasingly believed that the Big Five personality taxonomy can be used to describe the most salient aspects of personality. Pierce and Newstrom (2006:64) reinforce this belief by suggesting that each of the Big Five dimensions (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness) captures several personality traits with openness to experience, for example, representing imaginative, nonconforming, unconventional and autonomous thinking, while extraversion suggests sociable, assertive, active behaviour and positive affect.

In the last decade, research in the traits (or characteristics) realm was conducted by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in conjunction with Hay McBer (1998). Key characteristics associated with effective leadership were identified as:

Personal Values and Passionate Conviction

- Respect for others
- Challenge and Support

- Personal Conviction

Creating the Vision

- Strategic Thinking
- Drive for Improvement

Building Commitment and Support

- Impact and Influence
- Holding People Accountable

Planning for Delivery

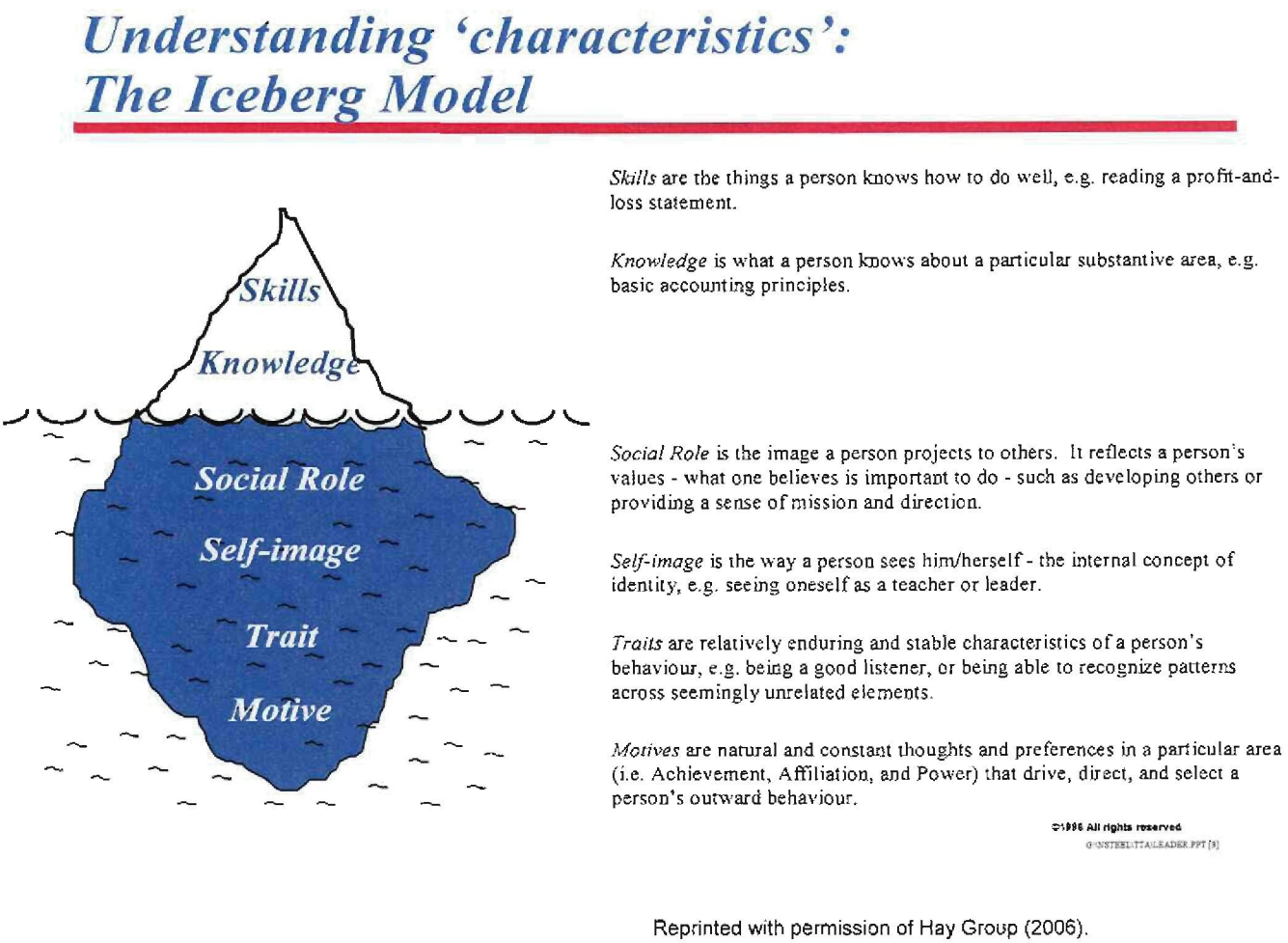
- Analytical Thinking
- Initiative
- Transformational Leadership
- Teamwork
- Understanding Others
- Developing Potential

Gathering Information and Gaining Understanding

- Social Awareness
- Scanning the Environment

2.3.6 The Iceberg model

The TTA/Hey McBer research steered them towards the view that traits or personal characteristics are key components of an 'Iceberg' model approach to leadership.



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Figure 2.4: The Iceberg Model (Hay Acquisition Company, 1998).

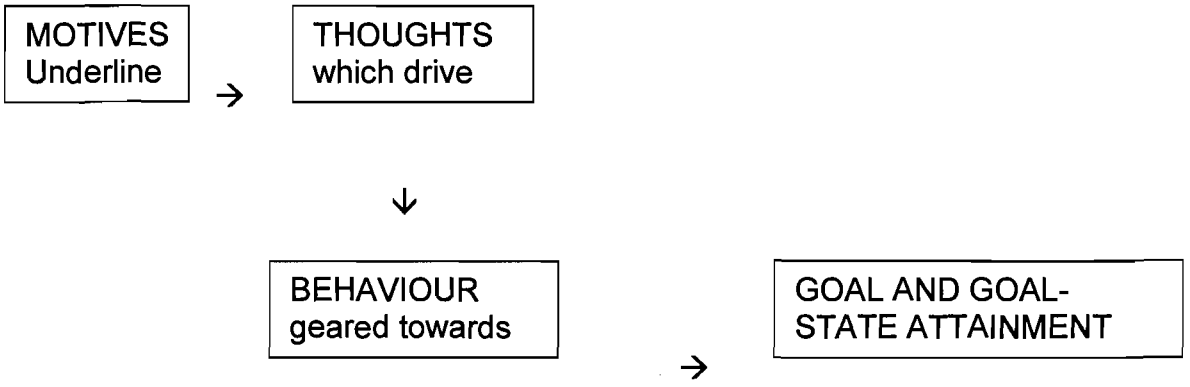
Skills and knowledge form just the top of the model, with the underlying element of characteristics controlling surface behaviour.

2.3.7 The three social motives

In the context of this study, a motive refers to an ongoing need, want or concern of which one is not usually conscious. It predisposes one to perceive and think about the people and situations they encounter in certain consistent and predictable ways. These perceptions and thoughts lead people to behave in ways that are consistent with their motives.

Every motive is marked by a strong desire to reach a certain kind of goal or, more precisely, a certain goal state, which is less tangible. A goal state is the feeling of satisfaction one gets upon reaching a particular goal. Because a goal state is so satisfying one is motivated to reach it over and over again.

Motives not only drive behaviour by influencing thoughts, but they also direct behaviour as illustrated below



Hay McBer (1998) refer to the social motives as follows:

The Achievement Motive

Primary Test: Meeting or exceeding a standard of excellence and/or improving one's performance.

When this motive is aroused, a person is concerned with or thinks about:

- Outperforming someone else, when that someone represents excellence
- Meeting or surpassing a self-imposed standard of excellence
- Accomplishing something new, unique or innovative
- Being involved in the long-term planning/advancement of his or her career

The Affiliation Motive

Primary Test: Maintaining or avoiding disruption of close, friendly relationships with people

When this motive is aroused, a person is concerned with or thinks about:

- Establishing, restoring or maintaining close, warm relationships and being liked, accepted
- Separation from another or disruption of a positive relationship or wanting to restore the close relationship
- Group activities primarily as social

The Power Motive

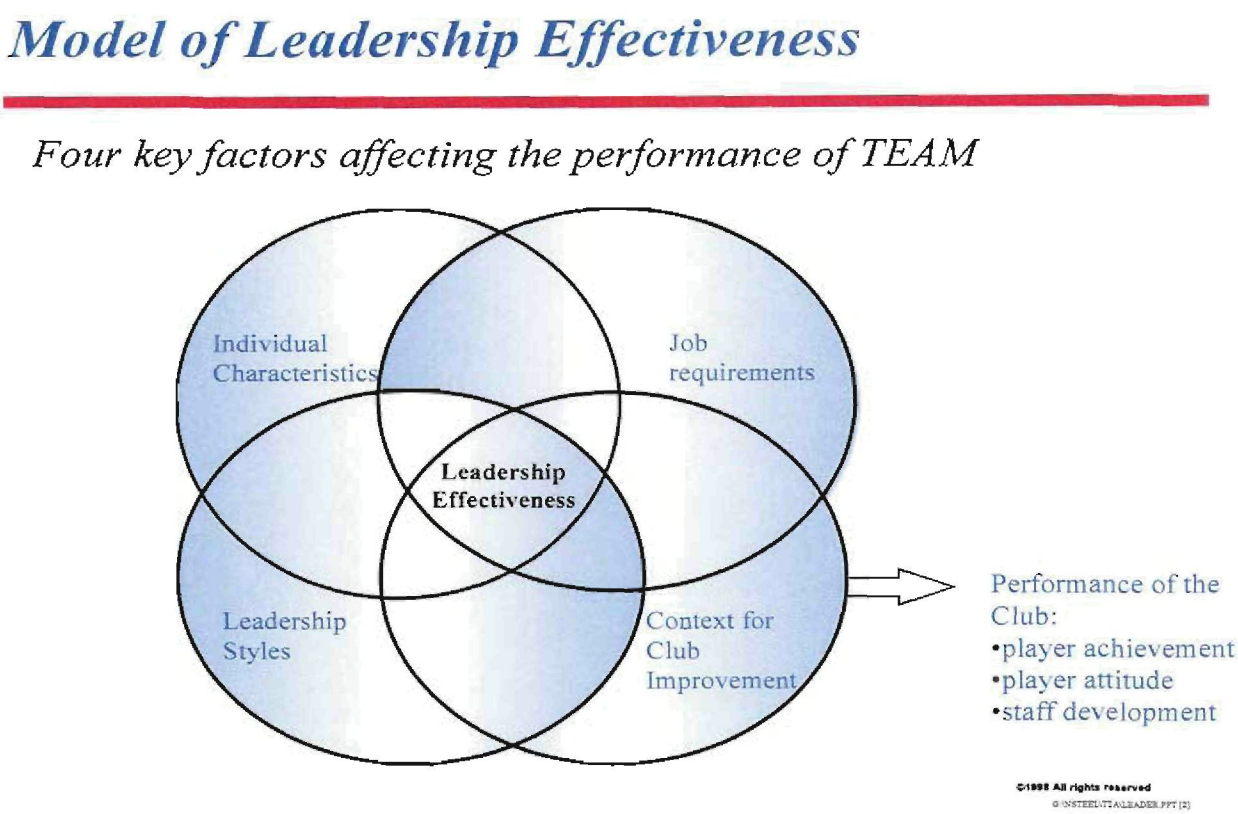
Primary Test: Having an influence or making an impact on others

When this motive is aroused, a person is concerned with or thinks about:

- Performing powerful actions including:
  - Exercising forceful behaviours that affect others (e.g aggression)
  - Giving unsolicited help, advice or support
  - Trying to control other people through regulating their behaviour
  - Trying to influence, persuade or make a point for the purpose of convincing others
  - Trying to impress other people, or the world at large
- Arousing strong positive or negative emotions in others
- His or her reputation, position or strength

2.3.8 Model of leadership effectiveness

In tandem with a job requirement they suggested that leadership style and individual characteristics lead to leadership effectiveness as illustrated overleaf:



Above model adapted in collaboration with Hay Group (2005).

Figure 2.5: Model of Leadership Effectiveness (adapted from Hay Group, 2005)

2.4 LEADERSHIP IN MODERN ORGANISATIONS

Berry and Cartwright (2000:344) promote the view that today's organisations are involving into federations, networks, clusters, cross-functional teams, temporary systems, ad hoc task forces and indeed anything but pyramids with obsolete top down leadership. A review of literature conducted by Marquardt (2000) prompts his suggestion that seven attributes appear to have emerged as being crucial for leaders in the tweny-first century. Such a notion refers to the systems thinker, change agent, innovator and risk taker, servant and steward, polychromic coordinator, teacher, mentor, coach and learner, and visionary and vision-builder.

According to Kumari *et al.* (2005:140) leadership in a modern organisation is the process

of guiding, directing and motivating an organisation to outstanding achievement in the organisations fundamental purposes. Indeed, Gonzalez and Guillen (2002:153) believe that in the present complex world of organisations, where flexibility and creativity are necessary conditions for survival, the role of the leader is even more critical.

2.4.1 Post-industrial perspective

Rost (1991:9) forwarded a 'new' definition of leadership which he viewed as a post-industrial understanding of leadership and in doing so he promoted the argument for why the most industrial perspective of leadership was no longer suitable for the looming twenty-first century. Rogers and Ballard (1995:3) put the case that the globalisation of the economy along with the rapid change resulting from information and communication technology and the increasing diversity of our population creates a reality that organisations are now more disjointed and ambiguous rather than orderly and predictable. Rost (1991:15) argues that the 'old' industrial perspective of leadership takes a bureaucratic view of organisations and focuses predominately on 'great' leaders. His notion that leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and their collaborators who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes is pertinent to the modern organisations, and includes four essential elements pertaining to leaderships. The first is that the relationship is based on influence rather than positional authority. Noncoercive persuasion is used to influence people in the leadership relationship. The influence is multidirectional, coming from all members, rather than only top down. People are free to agree or disagree and to choose to stay in or leave the relationship. Secondly, leaders and their collaborators practice leadership. The word collaborators instead of followers is favoured because it more closely fits the values of this perspective. The interactions of leaders and their collaborators form the essence of leadership, not the individual behaviours of the leader. In a leadership relationship, collaborators are active rather than passive. Leaders are those who at a particular moment commit more of their resources (i.e. their expertise, their passion, their political savvy) to influence the process. The third element is collaborators and their leaders should intend real change. The very act of initiating a change movement marks the time when leadership occurs, in contrast to the industrial paradigm that leadership happens when any goal has been achieved. Real change connotes that the changes are substantive attempts to transform people's attitudes, behaviours, and

values. The final element relates to a notion that the changes leaders and their collaborators pursue reflect their mutual purposes. The changes should represent what both leaders and collaborators desire in a shared enterprise, rather than merely accomplishing the wishes of the leader.

Hooper and Potter (1997:19) set an agenda for leadership in the new millennium by suggesting that leadership needed to embrace the competences of creating a vision, technological awareness, interpersonal relationships, systems thinking, developing and coaching people and developing teams. They felt that creating a vision, for example, required leaders to develop a wider view of modern organisations in terms of their operation and related issues. Modern organisations need to recognise that nurturing leaders is about developing competence and confidence over a period of time, and more are developing leadership potential through continual leadership development programmes (5.4.2).

2.4.2 Leadership as a relationship

Kumari *et al.* (2005:206) sum up leadership skills for modern organisations by proposing that leadership is a relationship, as opposed to the property of an individual. It is conducted with leaders and followers, and followers are essential parts of the equation. The role of the leader is to serve followers and to empower them to become leaders themselves. Leadership entails change. Both leaders and followers experience change, originating within themselves and then emanating outward to the community. Leadership requires critical reflection and analysis in order to determine whether the vision of change being pursued is inclusive or whether it excludes or diminishes some members of the community. Leadership can be done by anyone, not only those who are designated as leaders. Alternative perspectives on leadership gained credence because they more fully captured some aspects of our experience with leadership than did the conventional view. Because the alternative perspectives raised questions that could not be addressed by the industrial paradigm of leadership, they prompted the search for a new paradigm of leadership for the twenty-first century. Daft (1999:105) suggests that regardless of personality, successful leaders demonstrate a feel for determining the style that is suitable for their particular organisational circumstances. The five distinct approaches adopted by successful leaders in modern organisations

should therefore be, firstly the *Strategic Approach* where the leader focuses on a vision of the organisation's future and systematically maps out how to get there. A leader using this approach tries to see the big picture and may spend up to 80 percent of their time on external matters such as customers, competitors, technological advances, and market trends. Secondly, the *Human Assets Approach* where the leader cultivates empowered people through organisational policies and programs; rewards those who act; builds relationships; and focuses on shared values. These leaders spend most of their time in personnel-related activities because they consider the growth and development of employees their primary responsibility. Thirdly, the *Expertise Approach* where the leader focuses the organisation on a specific expertise that identifies the company's competitive edge. Most of this leader's time is spent cultivating and continually improving this expertise throughout the organisation, such as studying new technological research, analysing competitors' products, and meeting with engineers and customers. Fourthly, the *Box Approach* where the leader who uses this approach concentrates on building a set of rules, systems, and procedures to control behaviour and outcomes within well-defined boundaries. These leaders spend a lot of time looking at and correcting deviations from organisational controls, such as a project behind deadline or quarterly results below expectations. Finally, the *Change Approach* where the leader focuses on significant organisational change. The leader who uses this approach sees their most critical role as creating an environment of continual reinvention, even if it causes mistakes and temporarily hurts financial performance. These leaders encourage risk taking, and they spend most of their time communicating directly with a wide range of stakeholders–customers, investors, suppliers, and employees at all organisational levels.

2.4.3 The leader of the future

Bennis (2004:50) suggests that the mark of a future leader in modern organisations is the ability to identify, woo and win the mentors who will change their life, and that the real test of their character is to nurture those whose stars may shine as brightly as, or even brighter than, the leader's own. Berry and Cartwright (2000:346) believe that the new leaders will encourage healthy dissent and values, and that those followers who are courageous enough to will say no. Goffee and Jones (2005:87) believe that authenticity is a highly desirable quality for a leader in a modern organisation in that

authentic leaders use their personal histories to establish common ground with those that they lead. Mayo and Nohria (2005:48) believe that leaders in modern organisations should confront change and identify latent potential in their organisation that others consider stagnant, mature or in decline. Such leaders should possess a vision of possibility and hope where others see failure and demise. A modern perspective by Pierce and Newstrom (2006:457) is that organisations still frantically search for that magical leader who can pull the organisation together and place it back on a competitive pace.

Gilbert (2005:77) argues that major organisational change used to take place every 15 to 20 years, and that now it is annual or even quicker, and so leaders need to be more skilled at being effective performers through such change. Hughes *et al.* (2006:389) also alludes to the notion that modern organisations face a myriad of challenges, not least in the realm of leadership. They refer to the 'best' leaders as those who recognise the situational and follower factors inhibiting or facilitating change, whilst painting a compelling vision of the future and formulating and executing a plan that moves their vision from dreams to reality. Indeed, Gerzon (2006:3) believes that leaders that can traverse boundaries have always been vital, but that today the need for such leadership capacity is even more urgent and widespread. He refers to the notion that leading as if the world stops at the edge of one's tribe, religion, nation or company had become impractical and often impossible. A view of leadership in modern organisations is portrayed by Hamm (2006:116) who suggests that the leader's job, at its core, is to inspire and support an organisation's collective responsibility to create a better future for the organisation. The notion is promoted that when a leader defines what he or she means and sets a clear direction according to that definition, then relationships and feedback improve, action is more efficient and improved organisational performance follows.

2.5 FORMS OF LEADERSHIP

Recent approaches to defining forms of leadership are generally found in text and journals intended for a general or leadership-practitioner type audience. The last fifteen to twenty years alone has witnessed a variety of approaches, and several definitions of the forms of leadership. Northouse (1997:5) refers to two common forms of leadership

as assigned and emergent leadership (see Chapter 1). These are lightweight definitions of forms of leadership in that he refers to assigned leadership as leadership based on occupying a position in an organisation, as opposed to emergent leadership which is leadership based on the perceptions of staff that an individual is the most influential member of their group or organisation regardless of title and/or position. Two key definitions include the transactional and transformational forms of leadership. Daft (1999:427) suggests that the basis of transactional leadership is an exchange process between leaders and followers. He proposes that the transactional leader identifies specific follower desires and provides for those desires with rewards if the followers meet specific objectives and perform certain duties. In this context, leadership is seen as a series of economic and social transactions in the quest to achieve specific goals. Such leaders focus on the present and keep organisations running smoothly and efficiently. Such transactional skills are deemed important for all leaders, but for change, a difference type of leadership is needed. Kuhnert & Lewis (1987:648) believe that transactional leaders are influential because it is in the best interest of staff to do what the leaders want. Indeed, Kuhnert (1994:10) identifies transactional leaders as those who exchange material items with staff in order to promote their own needs as well as that of the staff.

2.5.1 Transactional leadership

Covey (1992:286) believes that transactional leadership builds on man's need to get a job done and to make a living. It is preoccupied with power and position, politics, and perks, is mired in daily affairs and is short-term and hard-data oriented. It confuses causes and symptoms and concerns itself more with treatment than prevention whilst focusing on tactical issues. Transactional leadership relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions, follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems and supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line. Humphreys and Enstein (2003:85) believed that the key to the transactional style of leadership is the exchange between the superior and subordinate. They influence each other in a way that both parties receive something of value. In other words, the superiors give subordinates something that they want (for example, a salary increase) in exchange for something that the superiors desire (e.g. greater productivity, conformity to standards, etc.). The parties are mutually dependent on one

another and the contributions of each side are understood and rewarded. In this transaction, leader influence is based on the premise that it is in the best interest of the subordinates to follow.

2.5.2 Transformational leadership

Covey (1992:286) also saw transformational leadership as building on man's need to meaning whilst being preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics. It transcends daily affairs and is oriented toward meeting long-term goals without compromising human values and principles, separating causes and symptoms and working at prevention. Transformative leadership values profit as the basis of growth, is proactive, catalytic, and patient, and focuses more on missions and strategies for achieving them. It makes full use of human resources, identifies and develops new talent, recognises and rewards significant contributions and designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging. Finally it releases human potential, models love, leads out in new directions and aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals.

The transformational leader seeks to promote change in terms of an organisation's vision strategy and culture whilst at the same time promoting innovation in terms of the organisations products and technologies. Sarvio and Santora (2001:385) believe that transformational leaders raise the consciousness of followers by appealing to higher ideals such as liberty, justice, peace and equality. Daft (1999:427) believes that transformational leadership relates to the personal values, beliefs and qualities of the leader. Northouse (1997:131) refers to transformational leadership as a process whereby an individual engages with others to create a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both leader and follower. According to Bass (1995), such a form of leadership differs from transactional leadership in four areas:

First of all, transformational leadership develops followers into leaders. Followers are given greater freedom to control their own behaviour. Transformational leadership rallies people around a mission and defines the boundaries within which followers can operate in relative freedom to accomplish organisational goals. The transformational leader motivates followers to take initiative and to solve problems, and helps people

look at things in new ways. Developing courageous followers enables change to happen. The second significant area is that transformational leadership elevates followers' concerns from lower-level physical needs (such as for safety and security) to higher-level psychological needs (such as for self-esteem and self-actualisation). It is important that followers' lower level needs are met through adequate wages, safe working conditions, and other considerations. However, the transformational leader pays attention to each individual's need for growth and development. Therefore, the leader sets examples and speaks to followers' higher needs. Followers' abilities are challenged and linked to the organisation's mission. Transformational leaders appeal to followers in a way that challenges and empowers them to change the organisation. Penultimately, transformational leadership inspires followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group. Transformational leaders motivate people to do more than originally expected. They make followers aware of the importance of goals and outcomes needed for change and, in turn, enable them to transcend their own immediate interests for the sake of the organisational mission. Followers admire these leaders, identify with them, and have a high degree of trust in them. However, transformational leadership motivates people not to follow the leader personally but to believe in the need for change and be willing to make personal sacrifices for the greater purpose. Finally, transformational leadership paints a vision of a desired future state and communicates it in a way that makes the pain of change worth the effort. The most significant role may be to find a transformation vision that is significantly better than the old way, and to enlist others in achieving the dream. It is the vision that launches people into action and engages the commitment of followers. Change can occur when people have a sense of purpose as well as desirable picture of where the organisation is going. Without vision, there will be no transformation.

Sonnenfeld (1995:122) believes that transformational leaders have better relationships with their supervisors and make a more positive contribution to organisations than transactional leaders. Avery (2004:96) believes that transformational leaders are characterised by four 'I' behaviours i.e. the **idealized influence**, being equivalent to charisma; the notion of **individualised consideration** which provided followers with support, encouragement, praise and coaching; **inspirational motivation**, or an appealing vision using symbols to focus subordinate effort; and **intellectual stimulation**, which engaged followers in viewing problems from new perspectives. Bass's transformational

theory cited in Avery (2004:97) incorporates many of the visionary inspirational and charismatic elements of other emotion-based leadership theories, but he agrees that the four 'I' elements interact to produce changes in followers' level of awareness (for example, of the challenges facing the business). These elements affect follower motivation to solve business issues and pursue the vision. Transformational leaders appeal to followers' 'better selves' and even forego selfish goals for the sake of the group. They attempt to transform their followers by serving as coach, mentor or teacher.

Transformational leaders appear to make the difference between success and failure. Employees not only perform better when they believe their leaders are transformational, but also are much more satisfied with the organisation's performance appraisal system. Studies have compared the effects on group performance of transformational leadership with transactional leadership, finding increasing empirical support for Bass' concept. For example, transformational leadership was found to be effective in managing technology change and positively related to subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness. Indeed, Kelloway and Barling (2000) note that the idea that the dimensions comprising transformational leadership affect critical organisational attitudes and outcomes is well established in the leadership literature (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; 1990; Conger and Kanungo, 1987). Although several authors have identified difficulties in measuring transformational leadership (Bycio *et al.,* 1993; Carless, 1998;), there has been significant empirical support for the effects of transformational leadership on both production and staff morale (Kelloway & Barling, 2000;).

Sadler (1997:43) suggested that transformational leaders shared a number of characteristics that differentiated them from transactional leaders. Transformational leaders clearly saw themselves as change agents. They set out to make a difference and to transform the organisation for which they are responsible. They are courageous. They can deal with resistance, take a stand, take risks, confront reality. They believe in people. They have well developed beliefs about motivation, trust and empowerment. They are driven by a strong set of values, and they are life-long learners. They view mistakes – their own as well as other people's – as learning opportunities. They can cope with complexity, uncertainty and ambiguity and are visionaries.

Sonnenfeld (1995:121) puts the case that transformational leadership occurs when

leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group. Transformational leaders achieve these results in one or more ways. They may be charismatic to their followers and thus inspire them; they may meet the emotional needs of each employee; and/or they may intellectually stimulate employees. In the table below, Bass (1985) lists the characteristics of transformational and transactional leadership; these listings are based on the findings of a series of surveys and on clinical and case evidence.

Transformational Leader

Charisma: Provides vision and sense of mission, instils pride, gains respect and trust.

Inspiration: Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simply ways.

Intellectual Stimulation: Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving.

Individualised Consideration: Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises.

Transactional Leader

Contingent Reward: Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognises accomplishments

Management by Exception (active): Watches and searches for deviations from the rules and standards, takes corrective action.

Management by Exception (passive): Intervenes only if standards are not met.

Laissez-Faire: Abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions.

Table 2.7: Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional Leadership (Bass, 1985)

Bass and Avolio (1990:231) illustrate (below) the way in which the contributing factors of transformational leadership combine to create effective leadership in a more human approach to staff.

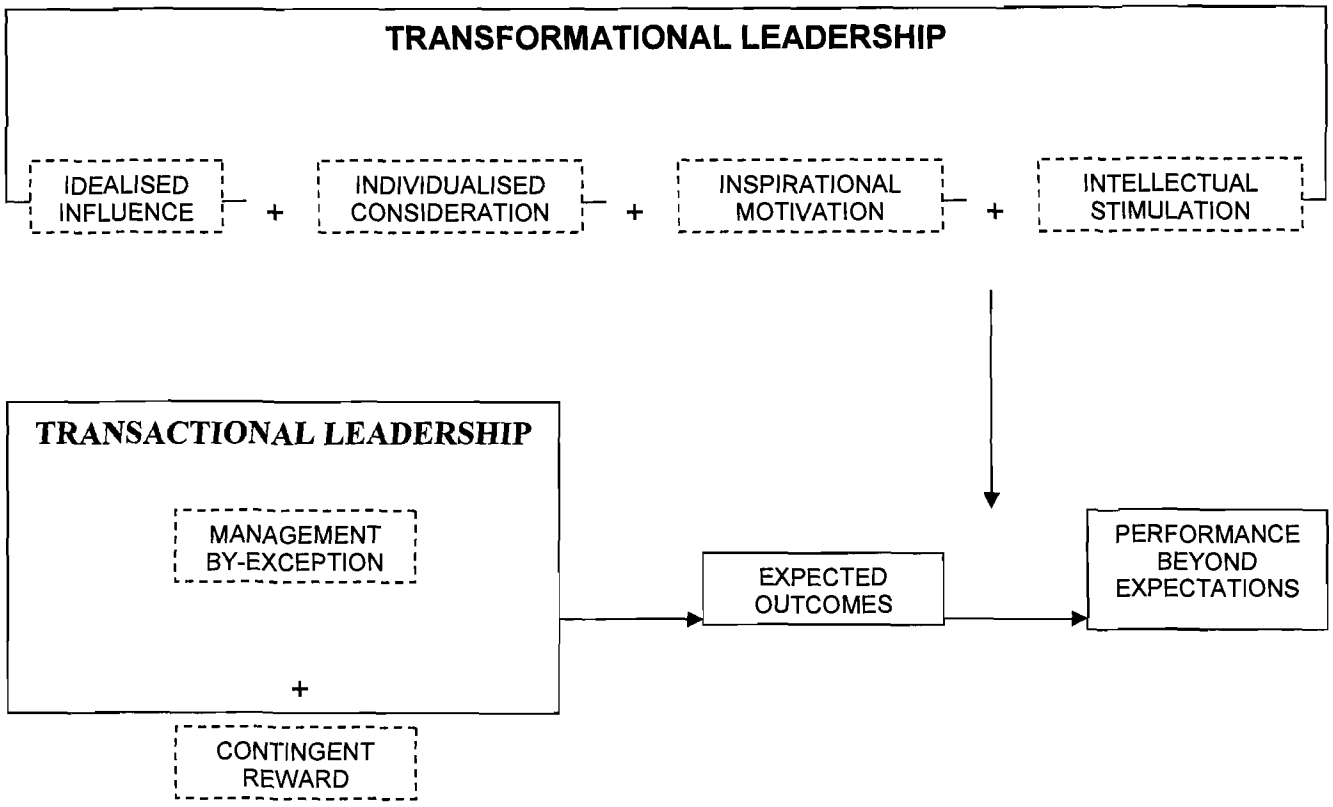


Table 2.8: Transformational > Effective Leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990)

2.5.3 Action logic

Society has been through many transformations since the above period however. A modern perspective is offered by Rooke and Torbert (2005:1) who believe that every organisation needs transformational leaders, professing that effective leaders are differentiated not by their personality or philosophy, but by their action logic, or how they interpret their own and others' behaviour, and how they maintain power. They refer to seven types of action logic as in table 2.9.

Action Logic	Characteristics	Strengths	% of research sample profiling at this action logic
Opportunist	*Wins any way possible.* Self-oriented; manipulative; "might makes right."	Good in emergencies and in sales opportunities.	**5%**
Diplomat	*Avoids overt conflict.* Wants to belong; obeys group norms; rarely rocks the boat.	Good as supportive glue within an office; helps bring people together.	**12%**
Expert	*Rules by logic and expertise.* Seeks rational efficiency.	Good as an individual contributor.	**38%**
Achiever	*Meets strategic goals.* Effectively achieves goals through teams; juggles managerial duties and market demands.	Well suited to managerial roles; action and goal oriented.	**30%**
Individualist	*Interweaves competing personal and company action logics.* Creates unique structures to resolve gaps between strategy and performance.	Effective in venture and consulting roles.	**10%**
Strategist	*Generates organizational and personal transformations.* Exercises the power of mutual inquiry, vigilance, and vulnerability for both the short and long term.	Effective as a transformational leader.	**4%**
Alchemist	*Generates social transformations.* Integrates material, spiritual, and societal transformation.	Good at leading society-wide transformations.	**1%**

Table 2.9: Action Logic (Rooke & Torbert, 2005)

2.6 ESSENCES OF LEADERSHIP

Nearly sixty years ago, Packard (1962:70) was advocating that the essence of leadership appeared to be the art of getting others to want to do something that you are convinced should be done. Twenty-five years later Kouzes and Posner (1987:25) suggested that the essence of leadership lies in leaders being credible and having a sense of direction. They felt that a leader should be able to stand up and express an attractive image of the future whilst conjuring the confidence that such as vision could be achieved. Smith (1991:207) believes that the essence of leadership is relative influence in that a leader is someone who has more influence over others than they have over him or her. Attention to the way in which successful leaders perceive essential leadership approaches that reflect the needs of the organisation and not the leader's personality is highlighted in Daft (1999:105) where interviews with 161 business leaders across six continents cite five essences of successful leadership. The first refers to the strategic approach where the leader focuses on a vision of the organisation's future and systematically devises a path of how to get there. The second is the human assets approach where the leader cultivates empowered people through organisational policies and programmes, rewards those who act and builds relationships, and focuses on shared values. These leaders spend most of their time in personnel-related activities because they consider the growth and development of employees their primary responsibility. Thirdly is the expertise approach where the leader focuses the organisation on a specific expertise that identifies the company's competitive edge. Most of this leader's time is spent cultivating and continually improving this expertise throughout the organisation, such as studying new technological research, analysing competitor's products, and meeting with engineers and customers. Penultimately the box approach, where the leader who uses this approach concentrates on building a set of rules, systems, and procedures to control behaviour and outcomes within well-defined boundaries. These leaders spend a lot of time looking at and correcting deviations from organisational controls, such as a project behind deadline or quarterly results below expectations. Finally, the change approach where the leader focuses on significant organisational change. The leader who uses this approach sees his or her most critical role as creating an environment of continual reinvention, even if it causes mistakes and temporarily hurts financial performance. These leaders encourage risk taking, and they spend most of their time communicating

directly with a wide range of stakeholders – customers, investors, suppliers, and employees at all organisational levels.

2.6.1 Shift from instructor to enabler

Hesselbein *et al.* (1996:178) promoted the view that the essence of leadership shifts from a directly and instructing approach to facilitating and enabling. They believe that leaders should act as facilitators who help staff, for example, to recognise the importance of long range career planning and to identify their career values, work values and marketable skills creating an open and accepting climate in which individuals can discuss their career concerns. They help people understand and articulate what they want from their career as further illustrated by Hesselbein *et al.* (1996:179) and other researchers below.

Leaders should also be appraisers, who provide candid feedback to team members regarding their performance and reputation, make clear the standards and expectations by which people's performance will be evaluated. They listen to people to learn what is important to them about their current job and their hopes for improving it, and point out the relationship between people's performance, reputation, and career goals, and suggest specific actions that individuals can take to improve their performance and reputation. Reinforcing such a climate is a modern perspective forwarded by Kellerman (2006:73) that leaders are responsible for their own behaviour as well as that of those who work to them.

The forecaster leader provides information about the organisation, the profession, and the industry, and helps people locate and access additional sources of information by pointing out emerging trends and new developments that may affect people's career prospects. In this way trust is enhanced between leaders and followers to such a degree that the phenomenon illustrated by Maccoby (2004:77) of followers being as powerfully driven to follow as leaders are to lead is realised. This helps leaders and followers to understand the cultural and political realities of the organisation, and thus the positive communication of the organisation's strategic direction as a team. Ready (2004:92) also supports this by alluding to the notion that the biggest test for rising leaders is to champion their organisation whilst looking out for the enterprise as a whole.

As an adviser leaders should help people identify a variety of potentially desirable career goals and assist individuals in their selection of realistic career goals. They relate potential career goals to the business requirements and strategic intent of the organisation and point out possible sources of support and obstacles to achieving career goals. Indeed Rogers and Blenko (2006:54) reinforce the notion that leaders making such 'good' decisions (such as in this advisory capacity) are the hall marks of high performing organisations. Finally, the leader should be an enabler who helps individuals develop detailed action plans for achieving their career goals and helps people achieve their goals by arranging useful contacts with people in other areas of the industry or the organisation. They should discuss team members' abilities and career goals with other people who could provide them with future opportunities, and connect people with the resources they need to implement their career action plans.

Some research suggests that the essences of leadership change as a leader develops in their chosen career. Brundrett *et al.* (2003:8) illustrate that in England, the National College of School Leadership, identifies a five stage model of career leadership which reflect how the essences of leadership change and develop i.e. the first stage where aspirational leaders start to take leadership responsibility to a fifth stage where they are suitably experienced to act in the capacity of trainer, mentor or inspector.

2.6.2 The seven essences of leadership

Owen (2000:6) increases understanding of leadership through 'seven essences' of leadership i.e. leadership is distinctly different to management and is not just something to be added to the job of a manager. Everyone is born with some gift of leadership, be it great or small. It is part of the human spirit and should be expressed to the world. Leadership is not the latest 'fad' but a timeless concept that has been studied and recorded for more than 3000 years in an attempt to understand this human phenomenon. We should use this abundance of knowledge. Leadership starts with the individual and requires a journey of becoming your true self. This requires knowing and understanding who you are. Leadership begins with being. Leadership requires us to understand and to listen to what is emerging in the world, share these experiences with others by connecting and then acting accordingly. This is the transforming part of

leadership. Leadership is expressed by everyone when people are connected and part of the whole rather than in separate components of a machine organisation. Finally, leadership is about being followers as well as leaders; position or privilege is not what makes a leader. Buckingham (2005:70) underpins this by highlighting that great leaders should tap into the needs and fears we all share.

2.7 LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Researchers have tried for decades to identify those elements, other than I.Q., that facilitate success in the context of effective leadership. Salovey and Meyer (1990:186) were the first researchers to adopt the term 'emotional intelligence' in the quest to describe the way in which humans bring 'intelligence' to their emotions. They regarded emotional intelligence as the capacity to reason with emotions in the four main areas of perceiving emotions, integrating emotions into thought, understanding emotions and managing emotions. Goleman (1996:22) referred to similar ideas of knowing and managing one's own emotions, and recognising emotions in others. He also includes handling relationships with others, empathy and warmth. Where Goleman's concept departs from Salovey and Mayer's is that Goleman includes factors not normally associated with emotion and intelligence as most people would understand them, such as motivation and persistence. Emotional and general intelligence are not opposing competencies, according to Goleman. Rather, people tend to mix and use them differently in different amounts. Instead people can enhance their emotional intelligence through training and experience.

Yukl (1998:11) suggested that leaders with high emotional maturity are considered more capable of maintaining cooperative relationships with subordinates, peers and superiors than people with low emotional maturity. The scant research available suggests that key components of emotional maturity are associated with managerial effectiveness and advancement. Some of these components include self-awareness, understanding one's strengths and weaknesses, and an orientation toward self-improvement.

2.7.1 Physiological basis of leadership

Goleman brought the concept of emotional intelligence to the attention of the world by

suggesting that the concept was an important prediction of managerial performance by publishing his studies relating to the physiological basis of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1996) studied three parts of the brain.

The first was the neo-cortex which is located at the top of the brain, overlaying the cortex, and is unique to humans. It controls thinking, memory and reasoning functions – it allows people to think about their feelings and keeps feelings under control. It also appears to be at work when people experience fear or rage, stifling or controlling the feeling to enable the person to deal more effectively with the situation. It brings more analytical or appropriate responses to emotional impulses modulating the amygdala and other limbic areas of the brain. The left pre-frontal lobe can switch off or calm down all but the strongest emotions. If an emotional response is needed, the neo-cortex works hand in hand with the amygdale and other circuits in the emotional brain.

The second was the hippocampus and amygdala which are below the neo-cortex. The amygdala region is the brain's emotional memory. The amygdala helps people recognise feeling. In an emotional emergency the amygdala, with its extensive web of neural connections, allows it to capture and drive the rest of the brain. A small bundle of neurons leading from the thalamus to the amygdala allows the amygdala to receive impulses direct from the senses and start to respond before messages have reached the neo-cortex. The neo-cortex becomes swamped by the amygdala. This is why people will sometimes say 'I can't think straight'.

The final part was the brain stem at the bottom of the brain which controls the body and basic instincts including survival.

2.7.2 Emotional intelligence competencies

Fullan (2001:8) recognised that in a culture of change (such as the constantly evolving role of the RRDM) emotions frequently run high, and when they do they often represent differences of opinion. Other key researchers in the realm of emotional intelligence such as Higgs and Dulewicz (1999:31), helped to clarify the notion of emotional intelligence by identifying the seven elements of self awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, influence intuitiveness and conscientiousness. Goleman (1996;15) defines emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognising our

own feelings, and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. He identified five main emotional competency sets (with several subdivisions), which he divides into the domains of personal and social competence:

- Personal competence
  Self-awareness (knowing one's internal state, preference, resources, and intuitions)
  Self-regulations (managing one's internal states, impulses, and resources)

- Social competence
  Motivation (emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals)
  Empathy (awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns)
  Social skills (adeptness at inducing desirable responses from others)

Goleman (1998:16) stated that more and more companies recognise emotional intelligence skills as vital components of any organisation's management philosophy. Working in sympathy with the International consultants Hay McBer, Goleman worked on the basis of 'competencies', which are deemed to be personal characteristics that differentiate levels of performance in a given job, culture or organisation. Such competencies were viewed as energisers or reinforcers that support an individual's ability to understand and manage oneself and others.

Carson *et al.* (2000:34) developed a five factor measure of emotional intelligence:

a) empathetic response, the ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people
b) mood regulation, the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods
c) interpersonal skill, proficiency in managing relationships and building networks
d) internal motivation, a passion to work for reasons that go beyond money and status that involves the ability to delay gratification in pursuit of a goal
e) self-awareness, the person's ability to recognise and understand his or her own moods, emotions, and drives and their effects on others.

Goleman (1998:48) proposed four leadership styles that were most effective in influencing culture and performance. High emotional intelligence reinforced the authoritative, affiliative, democratic and coaching leadership styles, whilst low emotional intelligence was commensurate with leaders employing predominately coercive and pacesetting styles.

2.7.3 Emotional quotient inventory

Stein and Book (2000:27) developed an Emotional Quotient (EQ) inventory which has now been conducted on more than 42000 people. They name five realms of EQ i.e.

Intrapersonal (self-awareness, actualization, independence, and self-regard)
Interpersonal (empathy, social responsibility)
Adaptability (problem solving, flexibility)
Stress management (stress tolerance, impulse control)
General mood (happiness, optimism)

They further support the concept of emotional intelligence by suggesting that we all know people who could send an IQ test sky-high, but can not quite make good in either their personal or working lives. They rub others the wrong way, and success just doesn't seem to come easily. Much of the time they cannot work out why. The reason why is that they're sorely lacking in emotional intelligence. They say that in everyday language emotional intelligence is what is commonly referred to as "street smarts", or that uncommon ability labelled "common sense." It has to do with the ability to read the political and social environment, and landscape them; to intuitively grasp what others want and need, what their strengths and weaknesses are; to remain unruffled by stress; and to be engaging. The kind of person that others want to be around.

2.7.4 Charismatic leadership

Terminology relating to the field of emotional intelligence is constantly emerging. The notion of 'charisma' is to the fore. Avery (2004:93) suggests that exceptional leaders who have extraordinary emotional effects on their followers, and often positively impact on their organisations (or other social systems), are sometimes

said to have *charisma*. Such leaders are believed to transform the needs, vales, preferences and aspirations of their followers from self-interest to collective interest. Over half a century has elapsed since Weber (1947:31) had recognised charisma as a source of a leader's authority based on the followers' perception of the leader's strength of character and inspiration. Nevertheless, the nature of charisma in leadership is highly disputed. Wasielewski *et al.* (1985:2) suggested that contrary to the common view of charisma, where the focus was still overwhelmingly placed on the personality of the leader, many researchers consider that charismatic leadership does not emanate from the leader's traits or behaviour *per se*. Instead, charisma is seen as an emotional interaction between a leader and followers. Avery (2004:94) suggests that charismatic leaders have been found to manage impressions to increase followers' trust, articulate and appealing vision of the future that becomes the basis for the cause, role model desirable behaviour that followers admire and identify with, communicate high expectations that induce followers to become committed to higher performance and introduce challenging goals. Bass (1985:12) promoted strengths of charismatic leadership citing that the followers of such a leader exhibit a high degree of respect and esteem for the leader, display loyalty and devotion to the leader, show affection for the leader, hold high performance expectations of leader and group, and offer unquestioning obedience to the leader.

Pierce and Newstrom (2006:377) describes the charismatic leader as someone who by the sheer force of personality is capable of having profound effects upon followers. *Charismatic leaders* generate extremely intense loyalty, passion, and devotion borne out of their emotional intelligence competitiveness. Daft (2000:334) believes that charismatic leaders have the ability to inspire and motivate people to do more than they would usually do despite obstacles and personal sacrifice. He believed that such leaders have an impact on people because they appeal to both the heart and the mind. Charismatic leaders create an atmosphere of change and articulate an idealised vision of a future that is significantly better in some way than what now exists. They have an ability to communicate complex ideas and goals in clear, compelling ways, so that everyone from the vice-president to the janitor can understand and identify with their message. Charismatic leaders inspire followers with an abiding faith even if the faith cannot be translated into specific goals that can be easily attained. Charismatic leaders earn followers' trust by being willing to incur great personal risk.

Putting themselves on the line affirms charismatic leaders as passionate advocates for their vision. Ball and Carter (2002:554) forward the view that it is clear from published research that the success of the charismatic leader is based upon communicative strategies which construct ideal future states for not only the organisation, but also its members, which certain of them "buy into". Hopfl (1992:29) believes that one of the most important functions of charismatic leadership is the manufacture and maintenance of meaning. The chart below shows a summary of the type of meanings that could be expected from the "charismatic" leader, and their followers.

Potential interpretations of "charismatic" leaders and their followers

Leaders	**Followers**
Importance of entrepreneurship	Feeling special
Importance of alliances	Feeling established within a group
Articulation of an ideal or vision	Feeling empowered
Importance of empowering people	Leader is extraordinary
Importance of working together	Leader is tangible

Table 2.10: Charismatic Leadership Definitions (Hopfl,1992).

Sadler (1997:50) developed a model of the process of charismatic leadership which is based on six attributes of leader behaviour and three beliefs held by followers. The six attributes are derived on the basis of 'good agreement among experts in the field'. They are a mixture of personal qualities and behavioural patterns:

- Empathy – showing concern for followers' needs, wants and fears.
- Dramatisation of the mission – articulating purpose through compelling, emotive language and through actions.
- Projecting self-assurance – acting confidently and with certainty.
- Enhancing own image – creating an impression of personal competence, being a 'winner'.
- Assuring followers of their competence and ability to achieve great things.
- Providing followers with opportunities to achieve success, delegating responsibility and removing obstacles to followers' performance.

In this model these behaviours on the part of the leader generate or strengthen three important responses on the part of sub-ordinates:

- **Awe** – or unreasoning faith in the leader's abilities.
- **Inspiration** – followers are persuaded of the moral or ethical purpose of the mission.
- **Empowerment** – followers believe they can overcome the obstacles and achieve great things.

It is interesting to note that Ball and Carter (2002:555) allude to six "repertoires" which purport closely to notions of charismatic leadership, i.e.

1. The *charismatic* repertoire: concerning extraordinariness as a leader
2. The *anachronism* repertoire: concerning the potency to dismiss all that is "old" and "outdated"
3. The *inevitability* repertoire: concerning a lack of power over changes which were dictated by circumstance
4. The *external alliances* repertoire: concerning self legitimation through links external to the organisation
5. The *empowerment* repertoire: concerning the leader/follower relationship
6. The *populist* repertoire: concerning the followers' identity with the leader

Pierce and Newstrom (2006:379) adapt Dunham and Pierce's earlier leadership process model (see 2:2) to include the notion of charismatic leadership (overleaf):

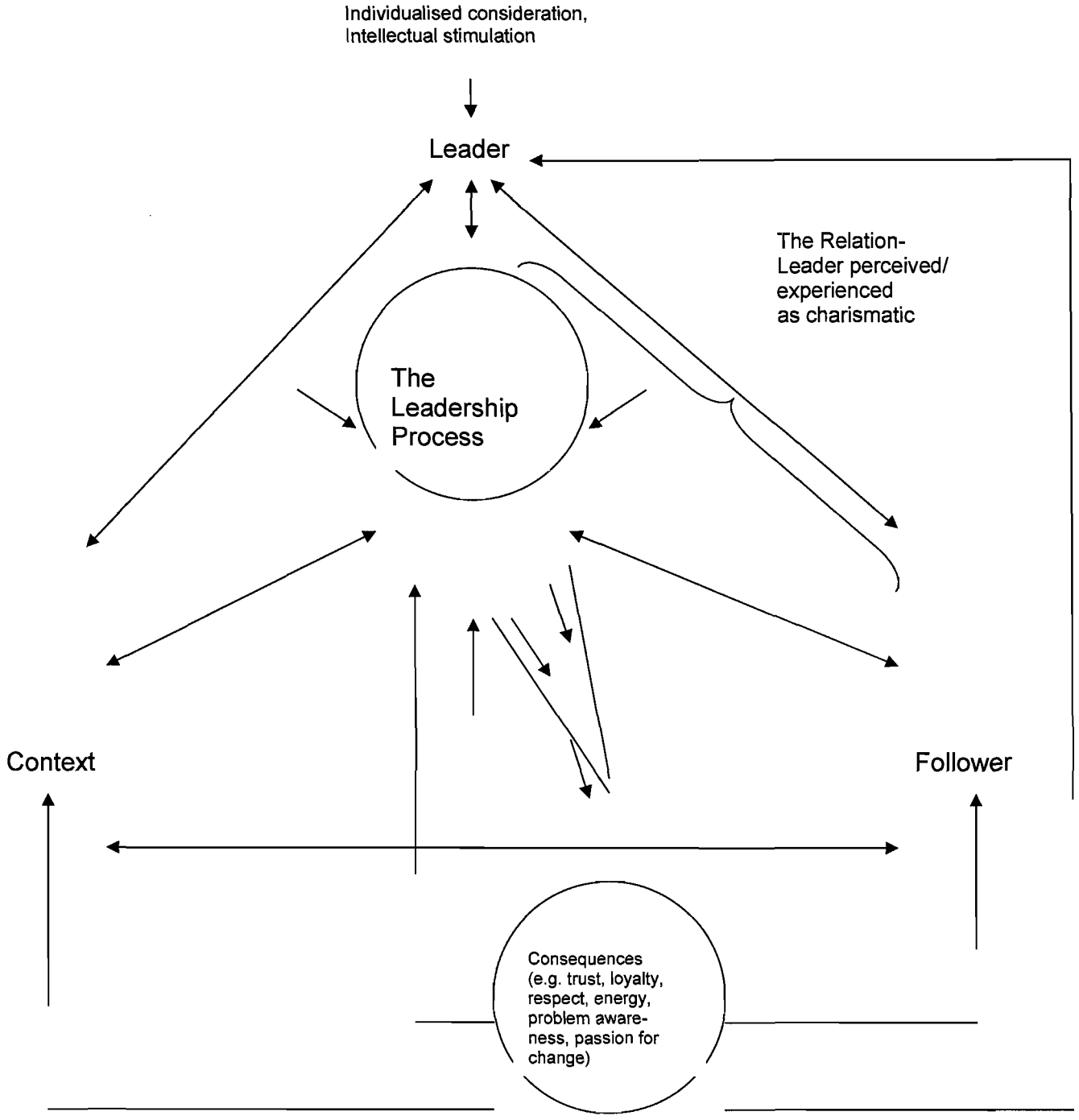


Figure 2.6: Charismatic Leadership (Pierce & Newstrom, 2006)

2.7.5 Charismatic vs non-charismatic leaders

Daft (1999:337) proposes the greater effectiveness of the charismatic as opposed to the non-charismatic leader (see overleaf).

DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS OF CHARISMATIC AND NON-CHARISMATIC LEADERS

	Non-charismatic Leaders	Charismatic Leaders
Likableness:	Shared perspective makes leader likable	Shared perspective and idealised vision make leader likable and an honourable hero worthy of identification and imitation
Trustworthiness:	Disinterested advocacy in persuasion attempts	Passionate advocacy by incurring great personal risk and cost
Relation to Status quo:	Tries to maintain status quo	Creates atmosphere of change
Future goals:	Limited goals not too discrepant from status quo	Idealised vision that is highly discrepant from status quo
Articulation:	Weak articulation of goals and motivation to lead	Strong and inspirational articulation of vision and motivation to lead
Competence:	Uses available means to achieve goals within frame-work of the existing order	Uses unconventional means to transcend the existing order
Behaviour:	Conventional, conforms to norms	Unconventional, counter-normative
Influence:	Primarily authority of position and rewards	Transcends position; personal power based on expertise and respect and admiration for the leader

Table 2.11: Charismatic and Non-Charismatic Leaders (Daft, 1999).

Key leadership competencies are deemed to be emotional self-awareness, self confidence, self control, sympathy, leadership, developing others and conflict management. Such competencies are defined as follows;

Emotional Self Awareness is recognising how our emotions affect our performance. People with this competency:

- Know which emotions they are feeling and why;
- Realise the links between their feelings and what they think, do and say;
- Recognise how their feelings affect their performance, and,
- Have a guiding awareness of their values and goals.

Self Confidence is a strong sense of one's self worth and capabilities. People with this competency:

- Present themselves with self assurance – have 'presence';
- Can voice views that are unpopular and go out on a limb for what is right; and,
- Are decisive, able to make sound decisions despite uncertainties and pressures.

Self Control is keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check. People with this competency:

- Manage their impulsive feelings and distressing emotions well;
- Stay composed, positive, and unflappable even in trying moments; and,
- Think clearly and stay focused under pressure.

Empathy is sensing others' feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns. People with this competency:

- Are attentive to emotional cues and listen well;
- Show sensitivity and understand others' perspectives; and,
- Help out based on understanding other people's needs and feelings.

Leadership is inspiring and guiding individuals and groups. People with this competency:

- Articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission;
- Step forward to lead as needed, regardless of position;
- Guide the performance of others while holding them accountable; and
- Lead by example.

Developing Others is sensing others' developmental needs and bolstering their abilities. People with this competency:

- Acknowledge and reward people's strengths and accomplishments;
- Offer useful feedback and identify people's needs for further growth; and,
- Mentor, give timely coaching, and offer assignments that challenge and foster a person's skills.

Conflict Management is negotiating and resolving disagreements. People with this competency:

- Handle difficult people and tense situations with diplomacy and tact;
- Spot potential conflict, bring disagreements into the open, and help de-escalate;
- Encourage debate and open discussion; and,
- Orchestrate win-win solutions.

Boyatzis et al (2000:347) clustered emotional intelligence competencies as illustrated on the table overleaf. They employed Cronbach's alpha estimates for reliability of the self assessment and the composite others' assessment average items scores as highlighted on the table. The emotional intelligence competencies cited on the table are employed in the wider study, as reliabilities in the 0.8 and 0.9 range are desired when needing to make distinction at the individual level.

CRONBACH'S ALPHA
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR THE ECI.

Scale Reliabilities in Terms of Cronbach's Alpha for Average Item Scores

	Self Assessment Form	**Composite Others' Assessment Form**
Emotional Self-Awareness	.629 (668)	.798 (427)
Accurate Self-Assessment	.715 (663)	.886 (427)
Self-Confidence	.825 (660)	.909 (428)

Self-Control	.808 (668)	.906 (427)
Trustworthiness	.667 (667)	.814 (427)
Conscientiousness	.816 (664)	.911 (428)
Adaptability	.618 (664)	.834 (428)
Achievement Orientation	.835 (660)	.921 (428)
Initiative	.754 (663)	.897 (427)
Empathy	.837 (657)	.948 (425)
Organisational Awareness	.786 (660)	.913 (426)
Developing Others	.818 (653)	.927 (426)
Service Orientation	.854 (628)	.938 (426)
Leadership	.658 (649)	.824 (427)
Influence	.767 (637)	.881 (425)
Communication	.789 (654)	.910 (427)
Change Catalyst	.866 (637)	.935 (426)
Conflict Management	.778 (660)	.894 (426)
Building Bonds	.773 (670)	.882 (427)
Teamwork and Collaboration	.842 (645)	.943 (426)

Note: Sample size is shown in parentheses following each coefficient alpha.

Table 2.12: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Estimates for the ECI (Boyatzis et al, 2000).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) refined the cluster further, deeming the following fifteen competencies as crucial. They are defined/explained as follows:

Emotional self-awareness: Leaders high in emotional self-awareness are attuned to their inner signals, recognising how their feelings affect them and their job performance. They are attuned to their guiding values and can often intuit the best course of action, seeing the big picture in a complex situation. Emotionally self aware leaders can be candid and authentic, able to speak openly about their emotions or with conviction about their guiding vision.

Accurate self-assessment: Leaders with high self-awareness typically know their limitations and strengths, and exhibit a sense of humour about themselves. They exhibit a gracefulness in learning where they need to improve, and welcome constructive criticism and feedback. Accurate self-assessment lets a leader know when to ask for help and where to focus in cultivating new leadership strengths.

Self-confidence: Knowing their abilities with accuracy allows leaders to play to their strengths. Self-confident leaders can welcome a difficult assignment. Such leaders often have a sense of presence, a self-assurance that lets them stand out in a group.

Self-control: Leaders with emotional self-control find ways to manage their disturbing emotions and impulses, and even to channel them in useful ways. A hallmark of self-control is the leader who stays calm and clear-headed under high stress or during a crisis – or who remains unflappable even when confronted by a trying situation.

Adaptability: Leaders who are adaptable can juggle multiple demands without losing their focus or energy, and are comfortable with the inevitable ambiguities of organisational life. Such leaders can be flexible in adapting to new challenges, nimble in adjusting to fluid change, and limber in their thinking in the face of new data or realities.

Achievement Orientation: Leaders with strength in achievement have high personal standards that drive them to constantly seek performance improvements – both for themselves and those they lead. They are pragmatic, setting measurable but challenging goals, and arte able to calculate risk so that their goals are worthy but attainable. A hall-mark of achievement is in continually learning – and teaching – ways to do better.

Initiative: Leaders who have a sense of efficacy – that they have what it takes to control their own destiny – excel in initiative. They seize opportunities – or create them – rather than simply waiting. Such a leader does not hesitate to cut through red tape, or even bend the rules, when necessary to create better possibilities for the future.

Empathy: Leaders with empathy are able to attune to a wide range of emotional signals, letting them sense the felt, but unspoken, emotions in a person or group. Such leaders listen attentively and can grasp the other person's perspective. Empathy makes a leader able to get along well with people of diverse backgrounds or from other cultures.

Organisational Awareness: A leader with a keen social awareness can be politically astute, able to detect crucial social networks and read key power relationships. Such leaders can understand the political forces at work in an organisation, as well as the guiding values and unspoken rules that operate among people there.

Developing Others: Leaders who are adept at cultivating people's abilities show a genuine interest in those they are helping along, understanding their goals, strengths, and weaknesses. Such leaders can give timely and constructive feedback and are natural mentors of coaches.

Service Orientation: Leaders high in the service competence foster an emotional climate so that people directly in touch with the customer or client will keep the relationship on the right track. Such leaders monitor customer or client satisfaction carefully to ensure they are getting what they need. They also make themselves available as needed.

Influence: Indicators of a leader's powers of influence range from finding just the right appeal for a given listener to knowing how to build buy-in from key people and a network of support for an initiative. Leaders adept in influence are persuasive and engaging when they address a group.

Change Catalyst: Leaders who can catalyst change are able to recognise the need for the change, challenge the status quo, and champion the new order. They can be strong advocates for the change even in the face of opposition, making the argument for it compellingly. They also find practical ways to overcome barriers to change.

Conflict Management: Leaders who manage conflicts best are able to draw out all parties, understand the differing perspectives, and then find a common ideal that everyone can endorse. They surface the conflict, acknowledge the feelings and views of all sides, and then redirect the energy toward a shared ideal.

Teamwork and Collaboration: Leaders who are able team players generate an atmosphere of friendly collegiality and are themselves models of respect, helpfulness, and cooperation. They draw others into active, enthusiastic commitment to the collective effort, and build spirit and identity. They spend time forging and cementing close relationships beyond mere work obligations.

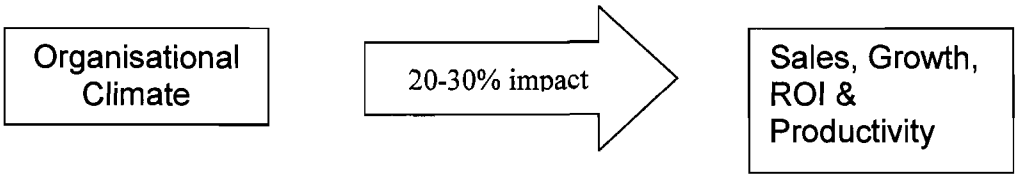
2.7.6 Training and developing emotional intelligence

Cherniss and Coleman (2001:29) recognise that organisations (such as the RFU) can increase their emotional intelligence through use of standard human resource (HR) functions such as hiring training and development, whilst also recognising that the two ways of increasing emotional intelligence in an organisation is to employ staff who are emotionally intelligent or to develop emotional intelligence in existing staff. The RFU have in position a large number of staff who have risen from more junior positions in the RFU e.g. RDO to RRDM, and whilst it seeks to employ emotional intelligent people as a matter of course, it also has a major training need in terms of developing emotional intelligence in its existing staff. It is this latter element of development of emotionally intelligence in existing staff that will be the central issue in a future study.

In terms of developing individuals, many organisations employ a 360 degree process to access emotional intelligence competences. Such a 360 degree process is employed in Chapter 3, where a rationale for its employment is promoted.

2.8 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

The original 2001 'Leadership Training' programme with the RFU included an organisational climate survey in the context of referring to an individual's perception of those aspects of their environment that directly impacted on how well they could do their job. Research conducted by Hay McBer (1998) showed that organisational climate directly impacted on the amount of discretionary effort and commitment employees actually made, which affected performance measures by up to 30%.



An organisational climate survey tool (see Chapter 3) was developed and employed as a leadership development tool for individual leaders in order that the findings could help their employment of appropriate leadership styles in the quest for more effective leadership.

Early researchers (Maslow, 1954; McGregor, 1960; Argyris, 1962) appear to be right in promoting the theory that conflict between individuals and organisations could potentially get worse as organisations become larger, with greater impersonality, longer chains of command and more complex rules and control systems. The rapidly expanding RFU exhibits such potential for this to occur. Whilst researchers such as Kouzes and Posner (1987:9) suggests that it is the leader's values that serve as the standards for others about what is important in an organisation, they also promote the importance of shared values (between leaders and employers), stressing that they foster strong feelings of personal effectiveness, promote high levels of company loyalty and facilitate consensus about key organisation goals and stakeholders. They

encourage ethical behaviour, promote strong norms about working hard and caring and reduce levels of job stress and tension.

2.8.1 Defining organisational climate

Of the plethora of definitions relating to an organisation's climate or culture is one which suggests that it is 'the way things happen around here.' Dunphy et al (2003:81) believe that leaders play a major role in changing an organisation's climate by confronting, developing and remoulding the core values of an organisation so that people experience a profound change in their understanding and purpose, and as a result act differently. Kouzes and Posner (1987:193) draw reference to research that reveals that a leader's efforts to clarify and articulate their personal values has a positive impact for an organisation's climate because shared values can foster strong feelings of personal effectiveness and promote high levels of company loyalty. It can facilitate consensus about key organisation goals and stakeholders and encourage ethical behaviour. Finally, it can promote strong norms about working hard and caring and reduce levels of job stress and tension.

2.8.2 Organisational climate inventory

Hooper and Potter (1997:19) draw reference to an organisation known as Verax Limited, who formulated an organisational climate inventory (OCI - see Chapter 3) in which it looked at organisational climate on three basic dimensions, each of which containing four behavioural patterns related to a positive or negative aspect of the way organisations operate. The first dimension purports to the constructive behaviours linked to setting goals, developing people, creating a helpful, human culture where problems are openly discussed and where good cross-functional team operation exists. The second involves defensive behaviours related to the excessive need for approval together with avoiding risk in a culture of fear. The third related to internal aggression, and is highlighted by the extent to which four distinct behavioural patterns exist. The first is where individuals devote considerable time and energy building their own power base borne out of their insecurity. Such a behavioural pattern has a negative effect on the operation of the organisation. The second is the pattern relating to perfectionism, where there is a constant striving for a position of no mistakes such a position can lead to a 'no blame' culture. The third pattern is concerned with oppositional behaviour,

where new ideas are always opposed, and can create an 'us and them' situation. The fourth pattern related to internal competitiveness, where differing factions spend more time fighting each other than working towards the benefit of the organisation.

2.8.3 Six dimensions impacting on organisational climate

As illustrated in Chapter 1, research by the Hay Group (1998) also focused on the perception of employees, and suggested six dimensions, which all had a critical impact on the performance of an organisation, and which were influenced by the leadership styles in an organisation i.e.

- Flexibility
- Responsibility
- Standards
- Rewards
- Clarity
- Team Commitment

Flexibility

The perception staff have about constraints in the organisation[bureaucracy!]; the degree to which they perceive that there are unnecessary rules, procedures, systems of administration (including meetings and paperwork, policies, and practices that interfere with task accomplishment) and that new ideas are easy to get accepted.

Responsibility

The perception that staff have a lot of authority delegated to them; the degree to which they can run their jobs without having to check everything with their team leader and feel fully accountable for the outcome.

Standards

The emphasis that staff perceive the senior team puts on improving performance and doing one's best; including the degree to which staff perceive that challenging but attainable goals are set for the organisation and its staff, and that mediocrity is not tolerated.

Rewards

The degree to which staff perceive that they are being recognised and rewarded for good work, that such recognition is directly and differentially related to levels of performance, and that staff know where they stand in terms of their performance.

Clarity

The perception that the staff understand the big picture, know what is expected of them in their jobs and understand how these expectations relate to the bigger goals and objectives of the organisation.

Team Commitment

The perception that staff are proud to belong to the organisation, will provide extra effort when needed, and trust that everyone is working towards a common objective.

Hesselbein et al (1996:64) make the case that leaders cannot easily change an organisation's climate in the sense of eliminating dysfunctional elements, but they can evolve climate by building on strengths thus allowing weaknesses to diminish over time. A key example of the impact of a dimension on an organisation relates to the notion that personal flexibility is essential for an organisation climate to evolve and change. Leaders of the future will therefore need to be flexible enough as to exhibit extraordinary levels of perception and insight into the realities of the world and into themselves and extraordinary levels of motivation to enable them to go through the inevitable pain of learning and change, especially in a world with looser boundaries, in which loyalties become more difficult to define. The emotional strength to manage their own and others' anxiety as learning and change become more and more a way of life and new skills in analysing cultural assumptions, identifying functional and dysfunctional assumptions, and evolving processes that enlarge the culture by building on its strengths and functional elements. Leaders of the future also need to show a willingness and ability to involve others and elicit their participation, because tasks will be too complex and information too widely distributed for leaders to solve problems on their own along with the willingness and ability to share power and control according to people's knowledge and skills to permit and encourage leadership to flourish throughout the organisation.

Research related to the six dimensions will seek to underpin the secondary aim of this study which is to investigate the impact of organisational climate on the role of the RRDM and those who they lead.

2.9 RUGBY DEVELOPMENTS AND THE CHANGING LEADERSHIP ROLE OF THE RRDM

Dunning and Sheard (1979:60) relate to the notion that rugby football descends from winter 'folk games' which were deeply rooted traditions in pre-industrial Britain. They reiterate in wide belief that rugby union football acquired its distinctive form as a result of a single deviant act by William Webb Ellis in 1823, when he picked up a football and ran with it at Rugby School. Smith (1999:17) believes that far more deserving of credit than William Webb Ellis was Rugby School's most famous Headteacher, Dr. Thomas Arnold (1828-42) who championed the game from a wider educational perspective.

The game is the only one of many emanating from the English public school system that has become a global phenomenon, enjoying increasing numbers of spectators through the course of its development. The first rugby club in England was formed at Cambridge in 1839, and Gallaher and Stead (1906) were writing about 'The Complete Rugby Footballer' a century ago. Thirty five years ago Titley and McWhirter (1970:77) were writing in relation to the formation of the RFU, but the most significant development in the game occurred just over a decade ago when the game turned professional. Malin (1997:9) observed that the International Rugby Board wrong footed the rugby union's administrators by announcing in August 1995 that the game was no longer amateur.

The English RFU immediately declared a moratorium on professionalism and quickly re-structured to accommodate the significant changes needed to adapt to the modern era. A key initiative was to introduce the role of RRDM in 2001. One of the key responsibilities of the post was to lead the delivery and management of the RFU Strategy Plan at regional level, a key leadership role in its own right. The latest 2006-2013 Strategic Plan highlights the challenges from a number of perspectives:

2.9.1 Government Policy

The British Government has done more to support sport than any previous administration, and this is no better illustrated than by the support it gave to the successful London 2012 Olympic bid.

The RFU (2006:4) is a firm supporter of the Government's aim "to significantly increase the levels of sport and physical activity, particularly amongst disadvantaged groups, and to achieve sustained levels of success in international competition".
These are some areas where the RFU is continuing to lobby for change to enable it to play its part. Forming part of the '4 Sports' group along with major participation sports, football, cricket and tennis, the RFU is asking Government to consider:

- Increasing expenditure in sports so that the public investment in sport per head of population in the UK reaches that of countries such as France, Germany and Italy

- Increasing the share of Government sports funding that is routed through the sports' National Governing Bodies that meet the Government's 'fit for purpose' requirements rather than through the excessive number of agencies currently in place.

- Reducing bureaucracy surrounding the provision of public funding to sport

- Improving the share of Sport England funding allocated to the '4 Sports' given that these sports from the basis for regular active sporting participation across the country

- Reviewing/revising Government policy on the taxation of National Governing Bodies. The RFU believe that, as in many other countries, they should become tax exempt. Currently, investment in the grassroots of the sport is taxed. The more the RFU invests in grassroots sport, the higher its tax bill. This is illogical and unfair given Government policy in community investment.

Current policy in each of these areas has a significant limiting effect on the RFU's ability to grow the game of rugby to the level that they feel the sport demands and would achieve Government targets for participation.

Government funding of rugby union				
	02/03	**03/04**	**04/05**	**05/06**
Revenue	£0.9m	£2.5m	£2.4m	£3.1m
Lottery	£5.6m	£5.6m		
CCDP* & Matched Funding		£6.6m	£3.7m	£3.5m

* Community Club Development Programme

Source: RFU (2006) From Good to Great: The Plan for Rugby in England RFU

Table 2.13: Government Funding of Rugby Union (RFU, 2006).

The RRDM's directive to be responsible for leading the regional co-ordination of such national initiatives will be a particular challenge here.

2.9.2 Club Development

The key RFU objectives here are as follows:

- Increase the number of adult participants by 2% per year averaged over the Plan period

- Increase the number of U17-24 participants by 2% per year averaged over the Plan period

- 50% of clubs to achieve Club Accreditation by the end of the Plan period
- 50% of applicable clubs to be registered as CASC's
- All clubs with Mini/Youth sections to have two links with local schools
- Increase the number of teams playing 'leisure' rugby by 5% per year averaged over the Plan period.

The RFU (2004:5) recognised that its clubs are the lifeblood of the sport. They acknowledge that they face challenges in terms of attracting players to the game as well as ensuring the retention of them as regular participants. This is particularly the case in the 17-24 age bracket, where many players are lost from the game for a variety of reasons.

The 2005/06 Strategic Plan places a greater emphasis upon this area than its predecessor. It is the RFU's stated objective to promote and develop the game within the community so as to encourage optimum participation and enjoyment at every level. Ultimately, the RFU wants to grow the sport by creating a solid base to the playing pyramid that enables a player to play for recreation only or to rise to play at a competitive level which matches their ability. It is also important that we retain players in rugby as volunteers, administrators, coaches and referees so that the knowledge they have gained is not lost from the game.

To this end, the RFU aim to develop activities that increase the number of U15 and U17 club sides participating in competitions, and to provide support for individuals by creating a clear pathway for player development. For the clubs themselves, the RFU are going to develop a support package for those that field additional teams. They also intend to review our competition structures, including knock-out cups, in the context of de-regulating wherever appropriate and possible.

The RRDM's directive to be responsible for ensuring support programmes for 'at risk' clubs will require the leadership of a range of personnel including rugby club chairpersons, coaches and committees.

2.9.3 Schools, students and youth development

Under the chairmanship of Robert Horner, the RFU commissioned a 'Task Group' to review schools, students and youth rugby in 1996. From the development of the 1996 report and the more recent Task Group Report (2004), areas of concern were recognised, and strategies were put in place to effect a more competitive schools, students and youth structure in England.

The 'Rugby Continuum' is now in place, which is a playing and coaching pathway by which schools (and Clubs) introduce the game of rugby to young players. This is in three incremental stages (referred to as "Mini-Midi Rugby") so that by under 13 players have acquired the skills and knowledge required to participate in the full 15-a-side game. Each stage possesses its own rules distinguishing it from the adult game and should not be considered as being merely a shortened version of senior rugby. The progression has been structured to cater for the changing developmental abilities of children as they mature with the emphasis being on the improvement of individual skills through purposeful and enjoyable activity. Provision is made for festivals/tournaments each season. Through the Rugby Continuum, the RFU seeks to promote the "spirit of rugby". This results in the enjoyment of learning a challenging team sport that values effort as much as achievement. Previously, some adults involved in developing Mini-Midi Rugby promoted a "win at any cost" culture to the exclusion of the wider values of the game including enjoyment, teamwork and respect for the efforts of others. The Rugby Continuum included Codes specifically designed to overcome such negative attitudes for the greater good of the game.

The three Stages of Mini-Midi Rugby are;

- **STAGE 1:** The under 7 and 8 age grades both play **Mini Tag Rugby** to the same rules except that Under 8's can only be tagged a maximum number of times.

- **STAGE 2:** The Under 9's and Under 10 age grades both play **Mini Rugby** to the same rules expect Under 9's have uncontested scrums and line-outs and Under 10's have contested scrums and line-outs.

- **STAGE 3:** The Under 11 and Under 12 age grades both play **Midi Rugby** to the same rules.

The Task Group Report (2004) illustrated further issues that caused confusion and conflict for young players. The amount of choices a player was faced with could force them into an option not best for their future development.

- U18 Clubs (1st January) or U18 Schools (1st January) or U18 Schools (1st September)

- U18 Schools or U19's or Students U19's

- U19's or U21's or Students U21's

- U20 County Championship or U21 Divisional Squad

- England U21 or England Students

The above 'problem' of age groups has had an adverse effect on the development of the England Rugby Football Schools Union (ERFSU) national teams. The difference in the school year in the Northern and Southern hemisphere, with the Southern hemisphere school year starting on the 1st January as opposed to the 1st September, has adversely affected those born in the Northern hemisphere between September and December. Such negative pathways need clearing by the RFU.

Leading heads of physical education in schools, school sports coordinators, and lecturers in universities all contribute to the leadership responsibilities of the RRDM.

The objectives of the RFU in this field are to:

- Increase the number of participants playing the game at U13-16 age group by a minimum of 2% per year averaged over the Plan period

- Increase the number of Secondary Schools playing more than six matches per year by a minimum of 2% per year
- Increase the number of student teams by a minimum of 2% per year averaged over the Plan period
- Increase the number of links between FE/HE institutions by a minimum of 2% per year averaged over the Plan period.

The RFU (2006:6) recognises that participation in schools is an issue for a number of sports, and there is no doubt that the extent to which a sport is played in schools has a direct impact on the number of players that continue to participate after leaving school and moving into adulthood. To tackle this issue and to ensure that there is an increase in the amount of rugby played in schools, the RFU will develop a training and support programme for schools' staff. This will be supplemented by activities that increase the number of secondary schools that give pupils the opportunity to play rugby and participate in recognised competitions. The RFU also aim to increase the number of schools playing five or more matches in years 9 and 10.

The 17-24 age bracket presents the RFU with a significant challenge in terms of player recruitment and retention. For reasons as diverse as physical development, moving away from home and academic or career pressures, rugby has found it increasingly difficult to fully engage this group. To address this, the RFU will establish a tracking system for students leaving institutions of further and higher education. Effectively, each player will register online to enable the RFU to provide them with the necessary information that they need to join a new club wherever they may be and whenever their circumstances change.

As far as the education system itself is concerned, the RFU will develop a support and incentive-based programme that will increase the number of teams in further and higher education institutions. The RFU will also establish an appropriate affiliation process for further education institutions to formally join the RFU.

As stated above, RRDM through their RDO will often engage closely with heads of physical education and physical education teachers, normally in a leadership role. Appendix 1 illustrates a recent 'Schools Incentive Pack' aimed at nurturing the involvement of schools in rugby union football.

2.9.4 Coach Development and Delivery

Key objectives here are to:

- Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching, supported by the best coach development system

- Achieve a players/coach ratio of 15:1 by the end of the Plan period

The RFU (2006:7) believes that coaching is one of the best tools for driving participation in rugby as well as one of the most effective means of retaining players. Quite simply, the RFU believes the more coaches there are, the more chance there is of enthusing players and providing them with the environment in which they can reach an optimal standard within the game.

The aim is to increase the number of coaches with National Coach Awards and provide development programmes to make sure that they are continually learning and adopting the most innovative coaching techniques. The RFU will recruit and retain more coach tutors, trainers and assessors to make certain that the advancement of coaching within the game is underpinned by a comprehensive support system.

The RFU will establish a network of Club Coaching Co-ordinators with a short term target of 70% of Section 1 clubs (defined as a club in full membership of the RFU playing 20 or more matches per annum) having a Club Coaching Co-ordinator. In the same way that the RFU are acting to ensure that players are retained within the rugby system, they will also be taking steps to make sure that they are able to keep in touch with coaches at all levels through a Coach Tracking system as part of Project Trafalgar. This will minimise the number of coaches who are lost from the game by continually engaging them in dialogue.

The RRDM will enjoy a wide leadership brief involving key RDO's who are responsible for delivery coach education courses.

2.9.5 Referee Development and Delivery

England has significantly less referees than both Australia and South Africa, despite being the largest rugby nation in terms of player numbers.

It is the RFU's intention to significantly improve on this ratio.

The key objectives here are to:

- Provide a competent referee for every game
- Achieve a player/referee ratio of 80:1 by the end of the Plan period

The RFU (2006:8) will be implementing a registration system for all referees in England, whether they referee matches in schools, colleges or clubs and to utilise this system to monitor referee appointments as well as communicating rule changes in a timely and efficient manner.

In order to ensure that the RFU are serving the interests of referees themselves and therefore the game as a whole, they will regularly review and develop referee training courses. They will seek to deliver a standardised national structure of refereeing qualifications, and aim to increase the number of RFU Referee trainers, assessors and referee coaches by 10% per year over the Plan period. The RFU will also be conducting a review of all reward and recognition systems to ensure that the incentives in place for referees encourage them to continue to officiate the sport.

The RRDM will lead their RDO's in the implementation of referee development courses.

2.9.6 Volunteer Development

Below the professional tier, the game relies on an army of volunteer administrators to deliver and run the sport. These volunteers need encouragement, support and recognition.

The RFU's objectives are thus to:

- Achieve a minimum of 3% per year increase in the number of volunteer administrators averaged over the period of the Plan

- All Constituent Bodies to adopt their agreed roles and responsibilities by 2006/07

- Create partnerships with Premier and National clubs for the benefit of the community game

- Constituent Body funding to be targeted to support priority area of the Community Rugby work programme

- Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators

If coaches teach the game and referees officiate it, then it is the huge number of volunteers that willingly give their time who actually run the sport below the professional level. As such, they are fundamental to the future success of the sport and it is the RFU's intention to cultivate this rich resource to ensure that the sport continues to thrive at the community level in the coming years.

The RFU (2006:9) are establishing a network of Club Volunteer Co-ordinators to provide more direct links between the clubs and the RFU on recruitment, retention, development and recognition of volunteers. RFU and Constituent Body Community Rugby initiatives will be linked and developed to form a 'menu of opportunities' for volunteers.

The RFU will continue to examine ways of reducing bureaucracy and unnecessary paperwork at all levels. They intend to eliminate the non-essential tasks of volunteer administrators which affect volunteer retention, and they will provide support from the centre to assist Constituent Bodies as they carry out their roles and responsibilities with the help of volunteers. Constituent Bodies will be helped to share knowledge and experience by developing working partnerships with them and by implementing a Constituent Bodies' Consultants Scheme. This will make available to Constituent Bodies the expertise of select RFU Council members on a consultative basis.

The Constituent Body strategic planning process will be simplified to enable all Constituent Bodies to participate in the planning process. Templates will be provided that will enable Constituent Body committees and officials across the country to carry out their work on a more uniform basis. Strategies will be put in place to enhance the relationship between professional staff and volunteers. Volunteers will receive training and education to better prepare them for the roles they wish to undertake within the game and this will go hand in hand with schemes to recognise the contribution that they make to the sport.

The RRDM will lead symbiotic projects with agencies such as the Sport England Regional Sports Board in their area.

2.10 CONCLUSION

An examination of the changing RRDM job description from implementation (Appendix 2) to the present (Appendix 3) illustrates the dynamic changing 'nature and scope' of the role. The RRDM will need to exhibit great understanding in relation to the links between leadership styles, leadership competencies and organisational climate as illustrated by Cherniss and Goleman (2001:41) overleaf. The researchers refer to a Hay McBer (1998) analysis of data on 3,781 executives, correlated with climate surveys filled out by those who work to them, which suggested that 50-70% of employees' perception of working climate is linked to the emotional intelligence characteristics of the leader. They suggest that leadership style seems to drive organisational performance across a wide span of industries and sectors and appears to be a crucial link in the chain from leader to climate to business success. They refer to a study of the heads of forty-two schools in the United Kingdom that suggested that leadership style drove up students' academic achievement by directly affecting school climate. When the school head was flexible in leadership style and demonstrated a variety of leadership competencies and abilities, teachers attitudes were more positive and students' grades higher; when the leader relied on fewer leadership competencies, teachers tended to be demoralised and students underperformed academically. Effective school leaders not only created a working climate conducive to achievement but were more attuned to teachers' perceptions of such aspects of climate and organisational health as clarity of vision and level of teamwork.

Research from the same database identifies how six styles of competency based leadership affects climate. Four styles – the visionary (sometimes called the "authoritative"), the affiliative, the democratic, and the coaching – generally drive climate in a positive direction. Two styles – the coercive and the pacesetting – tend to drive climate downward, particularly when leaders overuse them (though each of these two can have positive impact if applied in appropriate situations). Cherniss and Goleman (2001:42) summarise these effects in the table below:

LEADERSHIP STYLE, COMPETENCIES, AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Leadership Style	Competencies	Impact On Climate	Objective	When Appropriate
Visionary	Self-Confidence, Empathy, Change Catalyst, Visionary Leadership	Most strongly Positive	Mobilise others to follow a vision	When change requires a new vision or when a clear direction is needed
Affiliative	Empathy, Building Bonds, Conflict Management	Highly positive	Create harmony	To heal rifts in a team or to motivate during stressful times
Democratic	Teamwork and Collaboration, Communication	Highly positive	Build commit-ment through participation	To build buy-in or consensus or to get valuable input from employees
Coaching	Developing Others, Empathy, Emotional Self-Awareness	Highly positive	Build strengths for the future	To help an employee improve performance or develop long-term strengths
Coercive	Achievement Drive, Initiative, Emotional Self-Control	Strongly negative	Immediate compliance	In a crisis, to kick-start a turn around, or with problem employees
Pacesetting	Conscientiousness, Achievement Drive, Initiative	Highly negative	Perform tasks to a high standard	To get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team

Table 2.14: Leadership Styles, Competencies and Organisational Effectiveness (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001).

Visionary leaders are empathic, self-confident, and often act as agents of change. Affiliative leaders, too, are empathic, with strengths in building relationships and managing conflict. The democratic leader encourages collaboration and teamwork and communicates effectively – particularly as an excellent listener. The coaching leader is emotionally self-aware, empathic, and skilled at identifying and building on the potential of others. The coercive leader relies on the power of his position, ordering people to execute his wishes, and is typically handicapped by a lack of empathy. The pacesetting leader both sets high standards and exemplifies them, exhibiting initiative and a very high drive to achieve – but to a fault, too often micromanaging or criticising those who fail to meet their own high standards rather than helping them to improve. The most effective leaders integrate four or more of the six styles regularly, switching to the one most appropriate in a given leadership situation. The dynamic leadership role of the RRDM must seek to accommodate the most appropriate employment of a range of leadership styles in the quest to promote the best interests of the RFU at all times. The outcomes and context set for community rugby (Appendix 4) over the next few years call for effective leadership from all RRDM's.

CHAPTER 3

EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION: MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

When leadership is researched, it is normally from the perspective that leadership is a process and not a position. Of key importance is the concept of leadership embracing events as a consequence of the interaction between a leader and followers. In the context of this study, leadership is treated as a psychological and sociological phenomenon.

A concept of leadership in organisations continues to change at pace, with much depending on people and relationships. The diagnostic instruments employed in this study largely relate to people and relationships, and the aim of this chapter is to explain the methods and materials used for the purposes of the study.

The following will be discussed in this chapter: selection of sample, battery of tests, leadership styles inventories, competency portfolios and organisational climate surveys.

3.2 SELECTION OF SAMPLE

The study population consisted of seventy eight full-time employees of the RFU. The population comprised of seventy eight RRDM's, RDO's. All seventy eight of the sample enjoys leadership duties as a key focus of their job descriptions, and the emphasis related to the RRDM's appointed to a key leadership role in 2001. Part of their leadership duties is also to contribute to school rugby in the UK. This means that similar principles relevant to club rugby are also applicable to school rugby. An anonymous RRDM is the subject employed in Section 4.3.1.4.

In the quest for absolute consistency of experience and for reliability in testing terms, all senior managers (the RRDM's form the nub of the study) were engaged in three, two day workshops at the researcher's University. The first two day workshop sought

to ensure that all delegates better understood the links between individual characteristics, leadership styles and organisational performance. All delegates described and critically analysed their own leadership styles and the organisational climate they created, along with their individual characteristics and how they related to the leadership of others. Personal development targets were stated.

The second two day workshop examined models of leadership and organisational effectiveness, with all delegates enjoying one to one feedback sessions on leadership styles, personal characteristics and the organisational climate they created.

A third two day workshop enabled the senior managers to examine personal competencies, and the relationship of such competencies to their leadership effectiveness. The RRDM's personnel still employed by the RFU, have remained involved in testing (for emotional intelligence for a future study) undertaken both at the University and across England at various subjects headquarters.

3.3 VALIDATING, GATHERING AND RELIABILITY OF DATA

A range of researchers (Gomm et al, 2000; Delaine, 2000; Cohen et al, 2007) suggest that reliability is a necessary but insufficient condition for validity in research, whilst recognising that reliability is a necessary precondition of validity, and that validity may be a sufficient but not necessary condition for reliability. Byrne (2002:43) refers to reliability as the quality of repeated constancy of a measurement instrument, whilst viewing validity as a demonstration that a particular instrument measures what it seeks to measure. In simple terms, Bell (1993:64) refers to reliability as the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions. A number of devices for checking reliability in scales, tests, inventories and other instruments are referred to, such as test-retest (administering the same test some time after the first), the alternate forms method (where equivalent versions of the same items are given and results correlated), and the split-half method (where the items in the test area split into two matched halves and scores then correlated). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:107) deem that reliability refers to the extent to which any particular method of data collection is replicable, put simply as the extent to which a particular technique will produce the same kinds of results irrespective of who administers the technique or when. Validity is recognised as a much more complex concept (Thomas

and Nelson, 1990; Bell, 1993), and is concerned with the extent to which instruments, techniques, data, findings and explanations, measure or describe what they are supposed to measure or describe. A common way in which validity can be strengthened is by a form of triangulation or diversity of method. Employing a range of methods to collect data means that different sorts of data will be collected, thus illustrating how an initial idea or hypothesis may be confronted from different perspectives. Thomas and Nelson (1990:343) address validity under the guise of four basic types of validity being construed as logical, content, criterion and construct validity. Logical validity is claimed when the measure obviously involves the performance being measures with content validity relating mainly to learning in educational settings. Criterion validity embraces both concurrent and predictive validity, whilst construct validity is the extent to which a test measures a hypothetical framework and is mainly established by a relationship between the test results and some form of behaviour. Further discussion of validity ensues in 3.4.

In the quest to ensure as complete validity and reliability of testing and gathering of data as possible, an initial two day workshop (see 3.2) engaging RFU personnel was initially held at the researcher's University College Plymouth, (Marjon), England. One on one interviews with all personnel in attendance were conducted to establish thoroughly what all personnel actually did in real life work settings. The workshop also exposed all delegates to teaching and learning sessions directly linked to their understanding of what key elements such as individual characteristics, leadership styles and organisational performance actually meant. Each delegate was supported in attempting to describe their own leadership styles, the organisational climate that they created and their own individual characteristics. Ways in which characteristics related to the way they lead others were also explored.

All data collection techniques should yield critical information that provides important inroads into the nub of the topic in question. Successful data collection does not simply constitute a set of well-designed questions that are written down and administered to a sample population. Invalid and unreliable techniques produce irreproducible and meaningless data that potentially lead to inaccurate findings and wasted resources. To that end, all instruments used are validated and tested as to their reliability on a wide scale as highlighted in 3.4. All instruments were electronically self-completed by the subjects.

3.4 BATTERY OF TESTS

A range of instruments were considered for the leadership styles inventory, competency portfolio and organisational climate survey. Various researchers (Covey, 1990; Fink, 2003; Parks, 2005) suggest that there is a range of ways to think about leadership research (results/process/position/identity), in the quest to avoid any assumptions that higher feedback ratings correlate with better performance or that feedback processes will drive improvements in effectiveness.

An examination of the instruments employed by 'leading' consultants culminated in the decision to employ the Hay Group's (2002) tools for the leadership styles inventory, competency portfolio and organisational climate survey. As illustrated below, the tools were deemed to be valid on the basis of:

a) face validity (extent to which an assessment instrument subjectively appears to be measuring what it is supposed to measure)

b) content validity (perceived accuracy of self assessment in terms of a respondent's current leadership situation)

c) internal validity (absence of false correlations due to the question choice and structure)

d) divergent validity (statistically valid differences for different respondents)

e) predictive validity (perceived accuracy of the self assessment to indicate likely success from a respondent's actions)

3.4.1 LEADERSHIP STYLES INVENTORIES

As described in Chapter 2, leadership styles refers to the patterns of behaviour an individual leader or manager uses across the full range of leadership situations (Quinn, 1988; Covey, 1990; Northouse, 1997; Cranwell-Ward et al, 2002; Pierce and Newstrom, 2006; Hughes et al, 2006). Hay McBer (1998) illustrates that of all the variables that impact on the effectiveness of the work climate and the discretionary effort put forth by followers, leadership style has a significant impact. The breadth of a leader's repertoire of styles determines his or her effectiveness. Leaders gravitate toward styles that feel "natural" to them, and may limit themselves to only those styles that come naturally. What feels "natural" is largely determined by the leader's individual competencies.

Although leaders face an unlimited range of leadership situations, research by Hay McBer (1998) has shown that there are basically six leadership styles, or behaviour patterns, that leaders apply to the situations they encounter. They are:

- the Directive (Coercive) style;
- the Visionary (Authoritative) style;
- the Affiliative style;
- the Participative style;
- the Pacesetting style; and
- the Coaching style.

There is no right or wrong leadership style; the most effective style depends on, and varies according to the task, people, and situation to be lead. All of the styles are more or less effective depending on the characteristics of the situation, such as the:

- experience of the team;
- employee strengths and weaknesses;
- complexity of the task;
- time pressures;
- risk associated with deviation from performance;
- and resources available (e.g., time, people) (Yukl, 1998; Daft, 1999; Owen, 2000; Fink, 2003; Avery, 2004; Parks, 2005).

What is critical to a leader's effectiveness is his or her ability to diagnose the demands of the situation at hand, and to make use of the full array of styles, rather than to rely on only one or two styles to deal with all situations.

3.4.1.1 Assessing leadership styles

Assessing leadership style is balanced by the fact that there are strengths and weaknesses attached to considering the notion of styles as an approach to leadership. Such an approach widened the potential for research into leadership, and this included investigating leadership behaviour. A range of studies as early as the second half of the twentieth century by researchers from the Universities of both Michigan and Ohio

State, and later Blake and Mouton (1964, 1978, 1985) and Blake and McCanse (1991), supported the view that a styles approach to leadership helps to understand the process of leadership. Particularly prominent for an early approach to leadership styles

was the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1969) who promoted a distinction between leadership and leadership styles as alluded to in 2.3.1 A weakness of the styles approach is that there has been difficulty in correlating any link between styles and outcomes (Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1994; Daft, 2000). There has not been a single universal style identified that permeates all situations, which is why Cranwell-Ward et al (2002) promote the view that effective leadership is hinged on selecting the right style for the right situation, and executing the selected style well (see 2.3.3).

3.4.1.2 The Northouse Leadership Style Inventory

A range of instruments have been employed by researchers in the quest to assess styles of leaders. Northouse (1997:48) notes that the two most commonly used measures are the LBDQ designed by Stogdill (1963) and the Leadership Grid designed by Blake and McCanse (1991). Northouse (1997:49) promotes his own leadership styles instrument which seeks to measure two major types of leadership behaviour i.e. task and relationship. An examination of the twenty item questionnaire reveals that no apparent norms have been calculated to cater for an overall sample of self versus others, gender, job level and geography. Both construct and criterion validity are compromised.

3.4.1.3 The 'Dimensions of Leadership Profile'

Another leadership styles inventory considered was the 'Dimensions of Leadership Profile'. This was designed by Inscape Publishing, Inc. (1994), and is an instrument lacking reliability. It employed a system of cards embracing 144 items or phrases, which the subject would attempt to sort into piles of cards that described the same idea or theme.

The fact that item selection was based on the criteria that few words were needed, and that clarity of statements and representation of concept domain should be adhered to, was not enough to ensure reliability. Whilst a comparison of reliability coefficients were apparent, the use of rank order or forced choice response formats produce a number of negative inter scale correlations.

Another weakness of the 'Dimensions of Leadership Profile' was the data collection technique. Sorted cards engaged an 'Importance Scale' of 1 – 10 in order to indicate how meaningful a phrase was for describing a respondent's concept of leadership, with ties being permitted. No written explanation as to the value of the numbers 1 – 10 were offered. The final 'goal' of the profile is 'to apply a method of analysis that has not been used, or used infrequently, to analyse the concept'. The authors declare that the purpose of the last objective was to increase the likelihood of uncovering new insights by using methods that limit the analysis process less than traditional methods, thus weakening the scientific base.

3.4.1.4 'Four C Leadership' profile

Another inventory considered was the 'Four C Leadership HE:360 degree Feedback' inventory promoted by Azure Consulting International Ltd (2000). The rating scale relating to 'Potential Constraints' in Section 2 is ambiguous, with respondents expected to select '1 or 2' statements from 6. The "Open–ended comments' in Section 3 do little to protect anonymity (despite its claim) which thus detracts from reliability.

3.4.1.5 Leadership Styles Inventory (LSI)

The Leadership Style Inventory (LSI) employed was selected because it constantly responds to emerging theories, clinical awareness and factor analyses, and exhibits high levels of internal consistency. It is a sixty eight item multi-rater survey instrument providing leaders with a profile of their leadership styles on the six leadership dimensions of Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, Pacesetting and Coaching. Originally based on the work of Litwin and Stringer (1968), it promotes the concept that leadership styles drive organisational climates. The instrument has been tested in a variety of different industries worldwide, and demonstrates substantial validity (see appendix 5).

The LSI employed is favoured over various other options. Primarily, it focuses on a predictable relationship between a leader's dominant motive and his or her leadership style (see 2.3.7). It is designed to help leaders understand the styles they use in relating to their followers. It compares favourably with other instruments because of the breadth of issues dealt with, the theoretical background (not least the data collection

and analysis techniques) and the way in which it relates to the 'real world'. The survey provides diagnostic information as to which styles are effective and ineffective in relation to the postholder's role.

The reliability of the instrument is illustrated by extensive testing of leaders and followers by the Hay Acquisition Company (2002a), and is illustrated as Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. These coefficients stem from the Hay Group's testing of some 25000 'self ' and 110,000 'others' responses to the instrument between 1996 and 2002. The coercive style of leadership achieved a 0.7066 coefficient for self and 0.7451 coefficient for others. The authoritative style was less reliable than the leadership style for self (0.6507) but more reliable for others (0.8014). The affiliative style was less reliable than the two styles referred to thus far in terms of self, but more reliable than both for others (0.8248). The democratic style was the least reliable of all styles for self (0.4657) and achieved a coefficient of 0.6320 for others. Pacesetting and coaching styles achieved 0.5055 and 0.6826 coefficients for self and 0.6201 and 0.7957 respectively for others

3.4.1.6 Norms: Overall Sample (Self versus Others)

Norms have been calculated for overall sample (self vs others), gender, job level, and geography. The overall sample includes more than 25,000 participants who self-assessed and/or had subordinates assess their leadership styles between 1996 and 2002 using the Hay LSI. These participants were located all over the world. Norms for gender, job level, and geography are based on cases in which the respondent has indicated his or her demographic information in the survey. Although this does not compose a random sample, there is no reason to expect that this would not be a normal sample.

The Hay Acquisition Company (2002a) calculated norms for an overall sample of self versus others from a database of more than 25000 participants between 1996 and 2002 using the leadership styles inventory employed in this study. The following statistics illustrate the leadership styles a participant reported himself or herself as using (or intending to use) in contrast with what leadership styles his or her raters (others) experienced him or her using. Comparison of Means (t-test) shows that there

is a significant difference between the leadership styles one intends to use (self-reported) and the styles he or she actually uses (rated by others).

Leaders report using the Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, and Coaching styles more often than they actually do (self report higher than others report, p< .000), while they report using Coercive and Pacesetting styles less often than they actually do (self report lower than others report, p< .000). The difference is significant on all six styles (p< .000). The mean standard deviation for the coercive style for self was 2.7852 as opposed to 2.9770 for others. This varied markedly from the rest of the styles. The authoritative style standard deviation was 4.7897 for self and 4.2408 for others. The affiliative, democratic, pacesetting and coaching styles recorded standard deviations of 4.3673,4.1873, 3.2380 and 4.0990 respectively for self and standard deviations of 3.9926, 3.8878, 3.4141 and 3.6275 respectively for others.

Descriptive statistics (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002a) for leadership styles across a range of industries are illustrated in table 3.1. These statistics were again accrued by the Hay Group between 1996 and 2002.

Industries (Sample Size)	Leadership Styles: Mean (Standard Deviation)					
	Coercive	Authoritative	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
Manufacturing (n=1,943)	3.1086 (0.6047)	4.1525 (0.5533)	3.9053 (0.6339)	3.8205 (0.5377)	3.4513 (0.5083)	3.6111 (0.6604)
Food Products (n=1,943)	3.0802 (0.5621)	4.146 (0.5665)	3.9051 (0.6311)	3.7529 (0.5284)	3.379 (0.4952)	3.6317 (0.656)
Chemical and Related Products (n=1,325)	2.8763 (0.5852)	4.1968 (0.576)	3.9521 (0.6789)	3.8716 (0.5611)	3.4097 (0.5317)	3.6347 (0.7082)
Pharmaceutical (n=759)	2.9416 (0.5989)	4.3726 (0.5516)	4.1024 (0.6207)	3.9324 (0.5075)	3.2895 (0.5103)	3.9284 (0.704)
Technology (n=5,832)	2.7807 (0.5665)	4.245 (0.5099)	3.9393 (0.5895)	3.8278 (0.4858)	3.6453 (0.4465)	3.4962 (0.5831)
Telecommunications (n=522)	3.0735 (0.5746)	4.2666 (0.6093)	4.0946 (0.6491)	3.9591 (0.5467)	3.3313 (0.5018)	3.6731 (0.6764)
Financial Services (n=709)	2.817 (0.5007)	4.2891 (0.541)	3.9119 (0.6028)	3.8639 (0.4971)	3.4916 (0.4406)	3.5772 (0.6265)
Banks (p=324)	3.3307 (0.649)	4.1323 (0.6763)	3.9407 (0.7461)	3.8618 (0.622)	3.3583 (0.564)	3.6316 (0.75)
Insurance (n=2,035)	2.8661 (0.4493)	4.3965 (0.504)	4.1785 (0.5808)	4.0502 (0.4528)	3.2118 (0.5205)	3.841 (0.6697)
Health (n=1,557)	2.7716 (0.5707)	4.3995 (0.5793)	4.0761 (0.6186)	4.0675 (0.5332)	3.4114 (0.5275)	3.6315 (0.6748)
Utilities (n=678)	2.9772	4.2359	4.0828	3.9217	3.3902	3.6441

	(0.5644)	(0.5573)	(0.6276)	(0.5739)	(0.4853)	(0.651)
Construction (n=233)	2.9759 (0.6066)	4.2718 (0.5912)	3.9993 (0.588)	3.9232 (0.5033)	3.3651 (0.5777)	3.6096 (0.6342)
Agriculture (n=578)	3.0352 (0.6438)	4.0893 (0.6077)	3.8103 (0.6554)	3.7357 (0.5436)	3.4244 (0.5868)	3.4993 (0.7276)
Petroleum (n=926)	3.4123 (0.5017)	3.9543 (0.5599)	3.9731 (0.5915)	3.829 (0.5018)	3.2495 (0.4924)	3.5938 (0.6422)
Mining (n=440)	3.062 (0.6896)	4.1495 (0.5888)	3.9704 (0.6116)	3.8644 (0.5412)	3.319 (0.4981)	3.6212 (0.6187)
Retail (n=566)	3.17 (0.5539)	4.333 (0.5662)	4.0198 (0.612)	3.8659 (0.5112)	3.1605 (0.5625)	3.8425 (0.6756)
Transportation (n=388)	3.2318 (0.604)	4.1859 (0.6738)	3.9623 (0.7167)	3.9025 (0.6404)	3.3128 (0.5938)	3.598 (0.6961)
Communications (n=515)	2.9206 (0.5655)	4.163 (0.6198)	3.8515 (0.6915)	3.7762 (0.5554)	3.4624 (0.5106)	3.464 (0.6937)
Professional Services (n=1,029)	3.0565 (0.6388)	4.1676 (0.6347)	4.0018 (0.6833)	3.8204 (0.5543)	3.3732 (0.5466)	3.6398 (0.736)
Education (n=690)	3.0198 (0.6058)	4.3 (0.5781)	4.0136 (0.6716)	3.9881 (0.5007)	3.3985 (0.5431)	3.6882 (0.7266)
Public Administration (n=338)	2.9998 (0.6228)	4.1802 (0.6666)	3.9219 (0.6914)	3.8758 (0.5552)	3.3974 (0.5148)	3.5595 (0.6394)

Table 3.1: Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles in Different Industries.

3.4.1.7 Process

The 68 items of the leadership styles inventory are sent electronically to the subject and up to 6 raters i.e. 5 who work to the leader, and 1 person who leads the subject. The feedback received by the leader and researcher consists of two profiles—the intended leadership style and the leadership style experienced by raters. The self-report measures the leadership styles (expressed by behaviours) that the leader believes are demonstrated in the workplace. These are the leader's intended styles – they may not be what others experience. The leadership style experienced by raters measures the leadership styles (expressed by behaviours) that the raters see the leader demonstrate in the workplace. In other words, this is how the leader actually comes across, versus how the leader intends to come across.

3.4.1.8 Interpreting the Graphs received as Feedback (Example)

On the graph received, data is represented in the form of a histogram. The significance of the data can be measured by the height of the bars. Scores above the 66th

percentile are considered to be dominant styles. Research by Hay McBer (1998) reveals that these are the styles that appear to be used most frequently.

Scores between the 50th and the 66th percentile reflect backup styles. These are the styles that are used to complement the dominant styles, or when the dominant styles do not work. A person can have more than one dominant or backup style, or a person may have none.

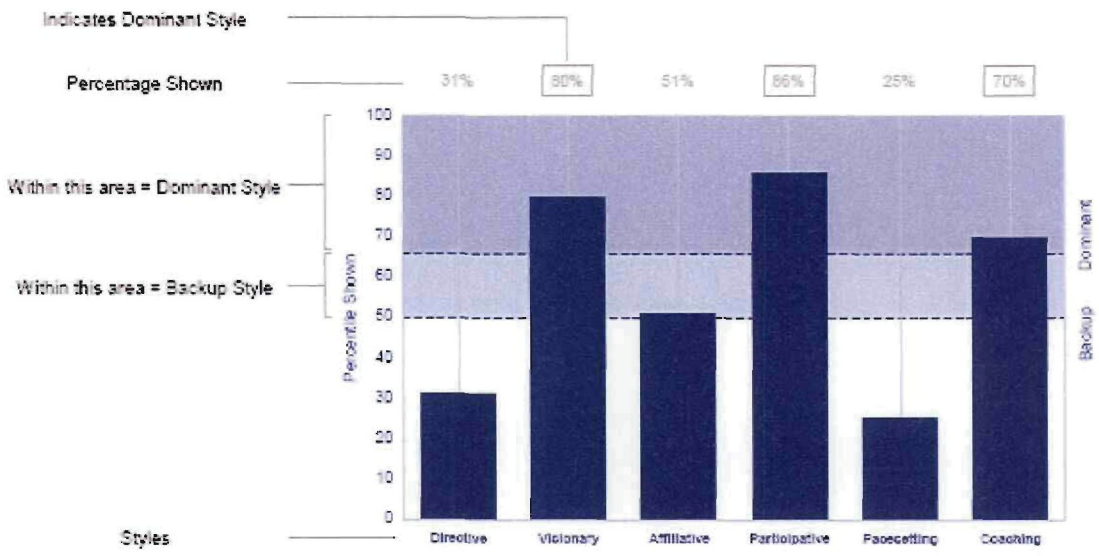


Figure 3.1: Interpreting the Graphs received as Feedback (Example)

3.4.1.9 Leadership Style Norms

In a study conducted by Hay McBer (1998), the scores that the leader receives have been compared with a representative sample of Hay McBer's (1998) worldwide database and transformed into percentiles. Percentiles let the leader compare the leadership style scores to those of leaders from other organizations. The higher the percentile, the more dominant the style relative to the norm group. A percentile of 65, for example, indicates that a leader's score for that style is higher than that of 65 percent of the leaders in the norm group. The norm group comprised of 215 organisations, 10324 leaders across all geographies, management levels, industries and functions (Hay McBer, 1998).

3.4.1.10 Leadership Style Effectiveness

All of these styles are more or less effective depending on the characteristics of the situation: employee experience, task complexity, the risk associated with the task, resources available, and so forth. Critical for a leader's effectiveness is the ability to pull from a wide range of styles to match the needs of the particular situation, rather than to rely on one or two styles to deal with all situations. (Northouse,1997; Owen, 2000; Pierce and Newstrom,2006)

Hay McBer (1998) suggested that a leader faces an unlimited number of different situations. The following critical questions need to be asked. What does this situation require of the leader? Is the repertoire of styles broad enough to handle the situation? Is the leader using the full range of behaviors available, or falling back on the one or two styles that are most comfortable?

The leader should want styles in their repertoire that are both complementary and compensatory. In other words they want to use some styles that complement what they already have and other styles that compensate for what they don't have. (Rost, 1991; Sadler, 1997; Smith, 2006) For example, if a leader already gives regular feedback and provides opportunity for direct reports to gain proficiency in their current skills, the leader should consider incorporating the behaviors of the coaching style to help them focus on long-term employee development to ensure employees are ready for the future as well as the present. The byproduct of this style is that employees will find this work environment energizing because they are growing, and the likelihood of them remaining in employment increases. In this case, the coaching style is a complementary style.

The coaching style alone may not be sufficient to meet all the needs of the people. They are growing but they don't have the context for why it is worth their time and effort. Leaders have not supplied them with the necessary vision or direction. The behaviors associated with the visionary style ensure that employees understand how and where they fit into the organization and where they and the organization are going in the future. In this case, the visionary style is a compensatory style (Kouzes and Posner, 1997; Gardner, 1997; Fink,2003).

The examples highlighted from Sections 3.4.1.12 to 3.4.1.15 are used on literature from Hay McBer (1998) as examples for organizations/individuals receiving reports.

3.4.1.11 Rater Agreement

The level of rater agreement for each leadership style is reported to each individual. The higher the agreement, the more consistent the ratings for that dimension. Low agreement on a leadership style may be caused by a number of factors: The leader may have different types of interactions with members of a group. Does the leader act differently with some people than with others?

Members of the group may experience a style in different ways. Everyone has biases and individual members may see the leader differently due to their own individual biases and personal filters.

Cultural or organizational structural factors may impact. For instance, the leader's raters may cut across different organizations (e.g., staff vs. line), or different geographies.

3.4.1.12 Self Report (Example)

The following example is used by the Hay McBer to illustrate feedback in relation to a self report.

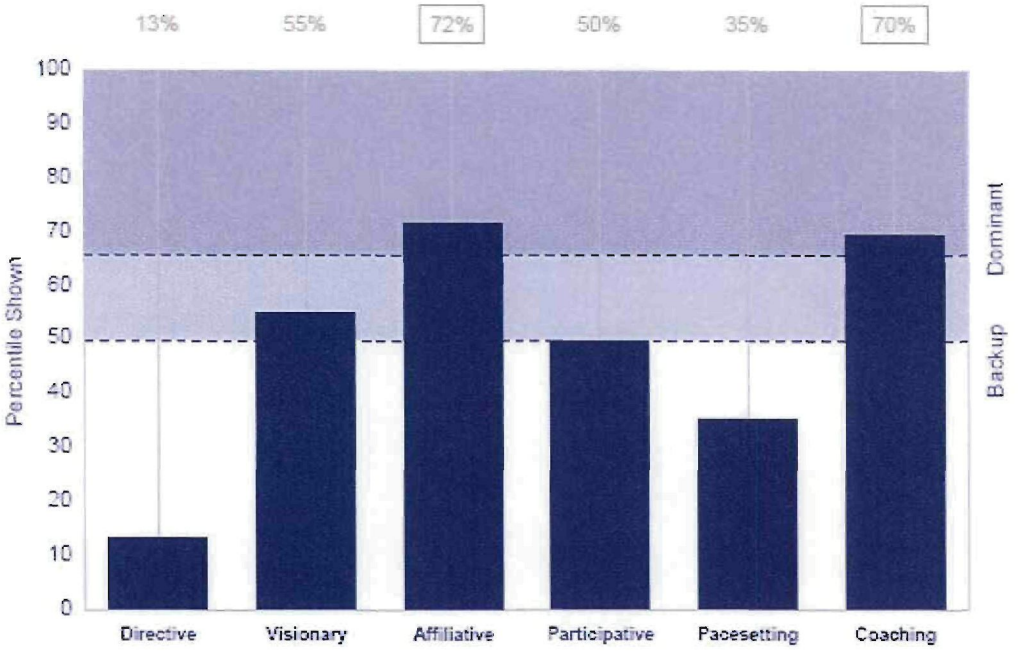


Figure 3.2: Self Report (Example)

The above profile represents a leader's (example) self report related to leadership style. If the leader did, in fact, do what it said it would do on the questionnaire, then this is how leadership style would best be described.

Dominant Styles: Affiliative and Coaching

Backup Styles: Visionary and Participative

In leadership roles, the leader should see itself as creating harmony among employees and between itself and employees, whilst providing long-term professional development of employees.

In certain situations, the leader sees itself providing long-term direction and vision for employees and building commitment among employees and generating new ideas.

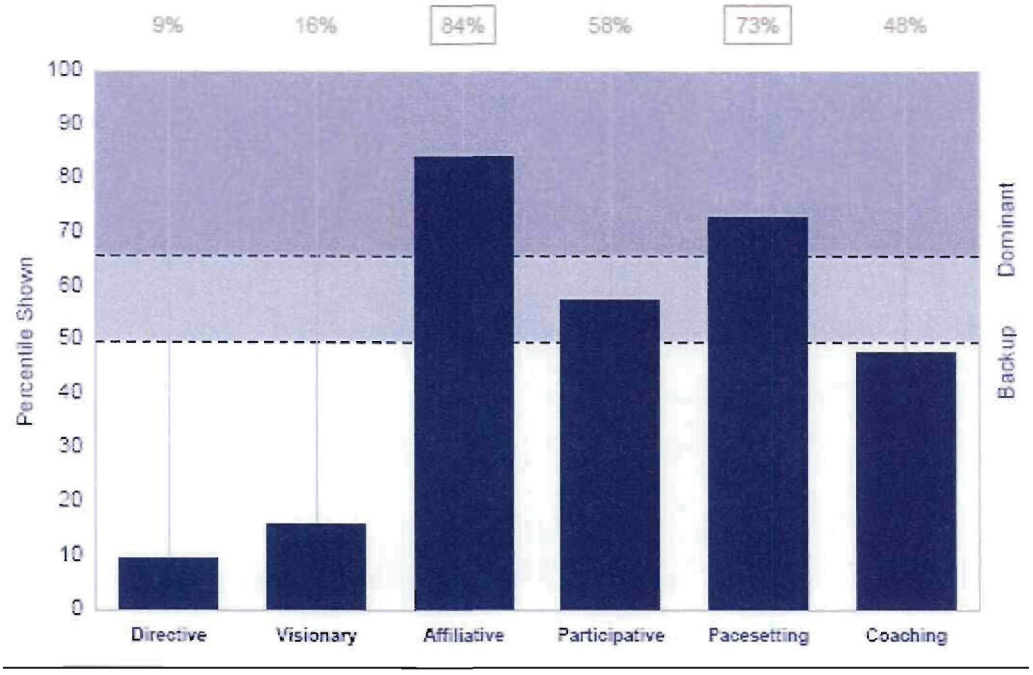


Figure 3.3: The Leadership Styles Experienced by Raters (Example)

The above profile is the raters' view of the leader's leadership styles. This view has the most impact on the organizational climate and ultimately organizational performance.

Dominant Styles: Affiliative and Pacesetting

Backup Styles: Participative

The raters view the leader's leadership style as primarily creating harmony among employees, and between itself and employees whilst accomplishing tasks to high standards of excellence. In certain situations, the raters see the leader building commitment among employees and generating new ideas.

3.4.1.13 Observations on the Leader's Profile (Example)

Leaders with strong affiliative and pacesetting styles typically lead with the intent of being respectful of the individual. This often results in leaders being overly deferential to that person and that person's shortcomings. Leaders may try to compensate for these perceived employee shortfalls by doing the employee's task themselves. They may feel that it takes too much work to confront the employee in a given situation, and that confrontation might only make the situation worse. The pitfall of this profile is that the more leaders engage in these styles, the more they have to engage in them. If leaders choose to do the task themselves rather than to help the employee, the employee will never change and grow.

This cycle tends to repeat itself, with leaders always stepping in to save the day. Leaders may finally end up resenting the individual and resorting to behaviors of the directive style to get the compliance they believe they and the organization deserve. With this combination of styles, it is important to establish with each individual clear expectations for performance as well as objective metrics to track performance. This will make it easier to manage performance issues, as these actions are less personal and more objective. Also, leaders should resist the temptation to jump in and rescue employees that do not meet expectations. Instead, they should provide support and advice to help them meet their goals, but make it clear that they are still accountable.

3.4.1.14 Leadership Style Comparison (Example)

The profiles below reveal the differences between the leadership styles. The imaginary leader reported it used and the leadership styles the raters experienced. The leader's self-report can be thought of as the styles intended. What is intended often is not what

is actually done. Therefore, it is not uncommon to have discrepancies between the leader's self-report and how others see them.

The styles the leader intended as compared to the styles the raters experienced.

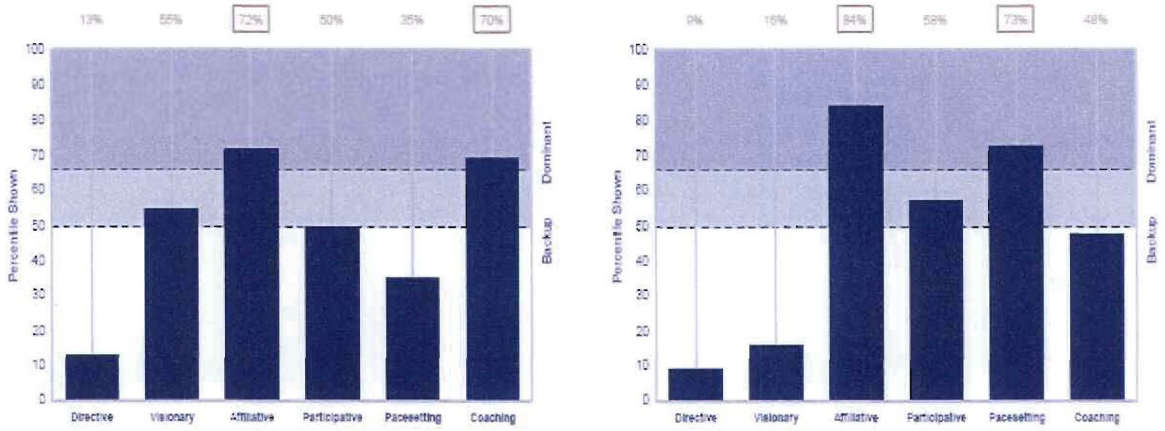


Figure 3.4: Leadership Style Comparison (Example)

The leader will need to look at the profiles, and consider what may account for similarities or discrepancies between intentions and how they come across to others. It is the raters' experience of styles that ultimately impacts upon performance.

Observations (Example):

The leader and raters agree that the affiliative style is a dominant part of the leader's repertoire. The leader reported the coaching style as dominant to the leader's repertoire, but the raters did not. The raters see the pacesetting style as dominant to the leader's repertoire, but the leader did not.

3.4.1.15 Observations on the Leader's Profile (Example)

The profile shows that the leader sees itself as coaching its direct reports; others perceive it as pacesetting. Typically in these cases leaders feel they are giving counsel and advice, but others see it as being focused strictly on task outcome. There is little long-term development or long term performance focus. It is all about getting immediate results. This can happen because the leader may find the problem at hand interesting. Solving it and getting the answer becomes the goal rather than helping the person develop the skills to solve it for himself. Consider asking questions or

communicating underlying principles to help individuals on the team learn to solve the problems for themselves.

The LSI selected is used to evaluate how a leader performs classic functions of leadership in terms of key behaviours. It is consistent with Lewin's (1951) field theory of b=f(p,e), in which b=behaviour, e= the environment and p= the person. The LSI has six dimensions (p.95) based on theoretical conceptions, clinical knowledge and factor analysis. It reinforces the views of a range of researchers who deem that organizational climate is the result of leadership styles employed (Ekvall, 1987; Glick, 1985; James and Jones,1974).

3.4.2 COMPETENCY PORTFOLIOS

A range of instruments for assessing competencies in general were considered in the quest to ascertain the most appropriate instrument for this study.

3.4.2.1 Emotional Competence inventory

The Hay Group's (2002c) Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) was investigated. Research on this instrument in action was conducted, and it revealed a study by Nel (2001) who sought to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance by administering the ECI to a sample of call centre staff working at the head office of a large life insurance company in South Africa. The participants were selected on a layered and random selection procedure from client services, sales and administration. Of the 153 questionnaires administered, 135 were returned, giving a response rate of 88.2%. The staffs were rated on the ECI by their team leader. 33% (n=44) were from client services, 34% (n=47) sales and 33% (n=44) administration. The statistics illustrate several significant correlations between ECI competencies and performance, but the results suggest only a moderate relationship between emotional intelligence and performance. In terms of correlations with performance for agents within each department, client services presented as 0.23 as opposed to administration with 0.46 in the emotional self-awareness component of the self awareness cluster. In the self-management cluster, self control presented as 0.17 for client services as opposed to 0.48 for administration. Again, in the social awareness cluster, empathy presented as 0.22 for client services whilst sales presented as 0.42.

The social skills cluster revealed the component of developing others as 0.30 for client services in contrast to 0.68 for administration.

Further examination of the ECI reveal that a number of its psychometric properties were fraught (Goleman, 1998; Boyatzis et al, 2000). Reliability was most questionable, but the competency scales showed inter correlations that were too high, which in turn results in a loss of factor differentiation. Such discrepancies weaken the case that the concept of emotional intelligence possessing various components rather than being simply a construct or score. The number of items (110) was too long, and validity was compromised because the scales were too highly correlated.

Another shortcoming of the ECI is gleaned from the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for self and total others ECI rating from the Hay North American Database. Scores are based on average item scores (see below). The pattern of results suggest that total others responses may be lead to inflated alpha coefficients because of a tendency for raters to apply an overall impression of a person, as opposed to precise indications of their actual competency in terms of each emotional competence. The total others rating for twenty three out of twenty four emotional competencies achieved higher alpha coefficients than the self rating elements. For example, the three competencies in the self awareness cluster i.e. emotional self-awareness, accurate self assessment and self- confidence achieved alpha coefficients of 0.74, 0.83 and 0.88 respectively in terms of the total others rating element. This does not correlate well with the self rating alpha coefficients of 0.61, 0.68 and 0.80 respectively. Similarly, the empathy, organizational awareness and service orientation components of the social awareness cluster revealed total others rating alpha coefficients of 0.92, 0.84 and 0.91 versus the self rating alpha coefficients of 0.81, 0.75 and 0.85. A similar position applies to both the self-management and social skills clusters.

It was therefore decided to analyse competencies from a broader perspective, and from a position that a competency is deemed to be a measurable characteristic of a person that is related to effective performance in a specific job role.

3.4.2.2 Barclays Competencies

Another instrument considered was the 'Barclays Competencies' profile (2002) because of the pertinent range of competencies considered. It focuses on the following competencies of:

- Vision / Direction
- Commercial /Entrepreneurial
- Communication /Influence

- Personal Impact /Performance Climate
- Relationship / Partnership Approach
- Teambuilding / Team Player

- Service Excellence
- Customer /Market Perspective

- People and Capability
- Orientation to Learn
- Technical Skills and Knowledge

- Drive for Results
- Innovation and Change
- Planning and Organising
- Decision Making/Problem Solving
- Living /Building the Brand
- Quality, High Standards and Controls

The problem with the Barclays instrument is that there is a temptation for respondents to think of the 3 levels of competence as 'boxes' and not as a continuum or progression. Similarly, respondents may just consider the advanced descriptors in a misguided quest to prove their competence, whilst also assuming a correlation between seniority and the levels of competence.

3.4.2.3 Boots Retail Competency Model

The competency model relating to a leading UK retailer Boots (2002) was considered because of its affiliation with cluster competencies. As with the Barclays instrument (Section 3.4.2.2.), there was a potential drive for delegates to the view the levels of competencies as 'boxes'. Content validity is comprised because of the potential to fail to discriminate between levels 1 and level 4, as illustrated in Table 3.2. Perceived accuracy of self assessment in terms of a respondent's current leadership situation

appears to be a highly reported factor. Further examples relating to the model are highlighted below:

Competencies	Competency Level Descriptions			
	1	2	3	4
Knowing Managing & Developing Self – the ability to recognise our own strengths, limitations, emotions and the impact these have on performance and others. It includes manage emotions in stressful situations and acting to improve our performance and capability	Aware if own emotions, strengths and limitations; resists impulsive inappropriate reactions	Understands own emotions and behaviours; responds appropriately; seeks feedback	Aets to improve own capability and performance in the short-medium terms; manages stress over time	Builds own capability in the longer term; takes risks to grow
Interpersonal Understanding – a curiosity to understand other people. The ability to accurately hear and understand unspoken or partly expressed thoughts, feelings and concerns of others.	Gains an understanding of how others typically behave and feel by accurately picking up clues from what people say and how they say it	Considers reasons for others behaviour based on perception of their behaviour and can identify key characteristics	Understands the underlying issues and the ongoing reasons for a person's behaviour leading to a balanced understanding of others	The ability to see the world from another's perspective and chose effective tactics to help an individual handle issues
Self Confidence – believes in one's own ability to accomplish things and follows through	Acts confidently within the limits of the job role	Acts confidently beyond the limits of the job	Is confident in one's own abilities and states confidence in own judgement – sticks to their guns	Takes on and is excited by challenges, actively seeks new responsibilities
Conceptual Thinking – understands/ explains situations by making connections beyond the obvious and identifying the key or underlying issues	Applies basic rules, and common sense to identify problems	See patterns and trends in information. Spots similarities and differences with previous experiences	Applies learned theories and models to explain the current situation	Makes the complex clear, simple and understandable. Boils data down into meaningful and information terms
Analytical Thinking – logically breaks down problems and situations to get a clear understanding of what's going on	Makes lists to break down problems	Cam see pros & cons and cause and effect relationships in a situation/problem	Can break problems down in several ways and ongoing consequences	Peels back the layers of the onion, and breaks down complex problems into its component parts
Information Seeking – curiosity and action to know more about things people or issues	Ask direct questions to find out more	Asks more detailed questions and goes beyond routine questions	Digs deeper to get to the root of a problem	Carries out broader forms of research over as a time period to get a richer picture, draws on internal & external networks

Table 3.2. Competency Level Descriptions (Boots Retail Competency Model, 2002)

Constructive validity of the model was also compromised due to the extent to which the 'boxes' promote subjective responses, and no technical details could be searched in order to ascertain any tests of validity which, for example, evaluated the results of the Boots model against the results of any other institutions (Bell, 1993; Byrne, 2002;).

3.4.2.4 Competency Portfolio employed

The Hay Acquisition Company's (2002c) instrument employed sought to measure a group of competencies selected as most likely to make a performance difference to the RRDM's and similar roles at the RFU. The competencies are organized in clusters related to aspects of the RRDM or similar role. Whilst each competency is important, not every one has to be mastered to achieve leadership effectiveness. Depending on the situation, there is a combination of competencies that will help most leaders achieve effectiveness. These are:

Leadership
Team Leadership
Developing Talent
Organizational Savvy
Strategic Perspective

Problem Solving
Environmental Scanning
Analytical Thinking
Conceptual Thinking

Personal Effectiveness
Integrity
Driving for Results
Flexibility
Self-Confidence

Interpersonal Effectiveness
Impact and Influence
Teamwork and Cooperation
Relationship Building

Chapter Four organizes the data accrued about the RFU as an organization into a number of sections i.e.

Data Description and Overview – providing general information about the management model.

Workforce Audit Summary – shows an overview of the bench strength and development needs of the group by competency cluster.

Competency Detail – provides information on where the group fell on each competency measured, as well as general statistics on the group.

Item Responses – which show the distribution of the group's ratings for each item in the management model.

The data is organized into the following sections i.e.

Competency Model Reference – defines and describes each subject's competencies measured in the survey.

Data validity – summarises the source and quality of the feedback data, as well as the agreement within rater groups.

Portfolio Summary – which summarises each subject's strengths and areas for improvement across the clusters of competencies.

Competency Detail – providing definitions, levels and scores by rater group for each competency.

Item Frequency Report – providing a distribution of ratings by rater for each item in the survey.

The competency portfolio employed is illustrated in appendix 6. It is selected for a number of reasons. Confidentiality is not compromised, and findings by a number of researchers (Nickerson, 2000; Burckle,2000;) illustrate that for a number of instruments, higher level employees (such as RRDM's) are more likely than lower level employees to have an inflated view of their competencies and less congruence with the views of others who work to them and 'know' them well.

3.4.3 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE SURVEY (OCS)

The final battery of tests relate to organizational climate. As illustrated in 3.6.1, the Organisational Climate Survey employed was as designed by the Hay Group (2002b). It was selected following a survey of a range of instruments by Fey and Beamish (2001), mainly because of the relationship between leadership styles and organizational climate.

Ekvall (1990) describes organizational climate as a conglomerate of attitudes, feelings and behaviours that characterize life in an organization whilst Hay McBer (1998) believe that organizational climate is the perception of 'how it feels like to work here', and that it relates to the 'atmosphere of the workplace'. It includes the complex mix of norms, values, expectations, policies and procedures that influence work motivation, commitment and individual and work unit performance. Organisational Climate is the individual's perception of those aspects of their environment that directly impact on how well they can do their job.

Organisational climate is employees' perception of those aspects of their environment that directly impact how well they can do their jobs. Numerous research studies (see Chapter 2) have found a direct link between the Organisational climate and an organisation's performance. Organisational climate is the closest thing to a profit-and-loss statement of how well a company leads its people. Organisations that are high

performing have climates with very specific and measurable characteristics (Kozlowski and Doherty,1989; Bass,1990; Smith, 2003). Climate affects organisational performance through its influence on employee motivation. In most jobs, especially complex ones, there is a vast gulf between what employees must do to meet expectations and what they can do if they perform at their full potential.

Organisational climate influences the discretionary effort and commitment of employees. Positive climates encourage and negative climates inhibit discretionary effort. High-performance climates are characterised by individuals who routinely do "whatever it takes" to meet goals, close sales, or satisfy customers. Extended periods of poor climate cause people to lose faith in the idea that things can improve, leading people to disengage from their jobs and the organisation. The likely results: turnover, absenteeism, dissatisfaction and low productivity.

Unlike attitude surveys that cover a range of issues, the Organisational Climate Survey employed (Appendix 7) concentrates on the six dimensions of organisational climate (below) that have consistently demonstrated the greatest direct effect on individual and work-unit performance.

Flexibility

There are no unnecessary rules, procedures, policies, or practices. New ideas are easily accepted. Flexibility is a measure of the perceived constraints in the workplace, the amount of red tape, and particularly, unnecessary red tape in the organisation. To what extent are you unnecessarily constrained by rules, policies, and procedures that interfere with getting the job done? And as a component of that, to what extent is the organization open to new ways of looking at things, to new ideas, to new ways of proceeding? Ideally, Flexibility will be high in an organisation. And in an entrepreneurial organisation, it will be very high.

Key questions to ask should determine the presence or absence of flexibility in the organization. Are there unnecessary rules and procedures? Is it relatively easy to innovate and to get new ideas accepted? Do people feel they have to fight against unreasonable constraints?

Responsibility

Employees are given authority to accomplish tasks without having to constantly check for approval. Responsibility is the feeling that employees have a lot of authority delegated to them; it is the degree to which they can run their jobs without having to check everything with their manager, and feel fully accountable for the outcome. In organisations with high responsibility, employees feel encouraged to use their best judgement and to do what they think is right, rather than to merely keep out of trouble.

Key questions to ask are to determine the presence or absence of responsibility in the organization. Are important tasks delegated to employees? Are individuals encouraged to take initiative without always checking with a superior? Are they encouraged to take calculated risks, based on their own judgement? Are they allowed the opportunity to experience the success or failure of their own efforts?

Standards

Challenging but attainable goals are set for the organisation and its employees. The Standards dimension is a measure of the emphasis that the organisation places on doing one's best. It is typically reflected in the establishment of goals that are both challenging and attainable. When standards are seen as high, this represents a good match between the expectations and the capability of both the individual and the organisation.

Key questions to ask in order to determine the presence or absence of standards in the organization. Is mediocrity tolerated? Can the leader, or others, get away with doing less than their best? Do individuals receive information and feedback on meeting agreed goals?

Rewards

Employees are recognised and rewarded for good performance. Rewards measures the degree to which team members feel that they are being recognised and rewarded for good work, and that such recognition is directly and differentially related to levels of performance. It reflects the extent to which employees know specifically what it is that the organisation values in their contribution and what their managers would like to see

more or less of from them. When this dimension is high, the feedback is immediate, specific, and directly related to performance.

Key questions to ask in order to determine the presence or absence of rewards in the organization. Do rewards outweigh punishments? Are rewards tied directly to performance quality? Does good performance lead to increased opportunities for personal growth?

Clarity

Everyone within the organisation knows what is expected. Clarity is probably the most important of all the climate dimensions. It's the most important because it consistently shows the strongest relationship to employee productivity. Clarity is the feeling that everyone knows what is expected of him or her, and understands how those expectations relate to the larger goals and objectives of the organisation. It's the answer to the question, Where are we going and how do I fit into that?

Key questions to ask in order to determine the presence or absence of clarity in the organization. Do you have a clear idea of what is expected of you? Do you know how you personally contribute to the organisation's mission? Are goals, policies, procedures, and lines of authority clearly articulated and understood?

Team Commitment

People are proud to belong to the organisation. Team commitment is a measure of the extent to which people are proud to belong to the organisation and can trust that others are working toward some common objective. The pride in belonging is most directly related to the level of performance of the organisation (i.e., people are proud to belong to an organisation that performs well) and to values (i.e., people are proud to belong to an organisation whose values they share or respect). The second part of team commitment is trusting that everyone is working toward a common objective. High team commitment is most evident when individual members are applauding each other's successes.Key questions to ask in order to determine the presence or absence of team commitment in the organization. Do individuals and teams co-operate effectively to get the job done? Do conflicts get resolved effectively? Do feelings of trust, pride, and organisational loyalty exist in the workplace?

3.4.3.1 Instrument Employed

Following an examination of over fifty instruments by Fey and Beamish (2001), the Organisational Climate Survey employed was as designed by the Hay Group (2000). It was selected because of the relationship between leadership style and organisational climate. Kelner et al (1994) analysed a sample of 3,871 direct reports drawn from nine businesses. Most of the individuals filling out the instruments were supervisors, managers, senior managers or executives, each rating his or her immediate supervisor. A strong relationship was found between specific managerial style behaviours as measured by the Leadership Style Inventory (LSI) and organizational climate dimensions as measured by the OCS and its predecessors. Styles accounted for approximately 54% of the variance in total climate, as measured by the OCS (r-square= .34, Beta= .537, n= 644, p< .0001). These results are consistent with what would be expected from the relationship between styles and climate. Support was also found for the hypothesis that a greater number of dominant leadership styles will lead to better climate. Positive correlations were found between the number of dominant leadership styles and all climate dimensions. The strongest correlations were with Rewards and Clarity where correlations of -0.29 and -0.28 were recorded for the pacesetting style for example.

3.4.3.2 Reliability

The statistics below present the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients based on a sample of 56,707 raters as conducted by the Hay Acquisition Company (2002b). Flexibility, for example, achieved a coefficient of 0.72, responsibility 0.66, rewards 0.81, clarity 0.83 and team commitment 0.86. Despite the poor reliability for the standards coefficient of 0.33, this can be balanced against its subscale coefficients of improvement (0.41 and excellence 0.63).

3.4.3.3 Validity

Content validity of the OCS is secured by the fact that it is founded on the original Litwin and Stringer (1968) model that so many other climate surveys are reinforced by, whilst the theoretical dimensions it is designed to measure overlaps with many other models (Margerison,1979; Wallach,1983; Shadur et al 1999;).

Construct validity is secured by the fact that findings that suggest leadership style helps to determine climate (see 3.4.3.1).

3.4.3.4 Using the OCS

The Organisational Climate Survey is a 90 item multi-rater survey designed to assess six key climate dimensions:

- Flexibility
- Responsibility
- Standards
- Rewards
- Clarity
- Team Commitment

Research conducted by Hay Group (1998) has shown that climate directly impacts on the amount of discretionary effort and commitment employees actually make, which in turn will affect important bottom line performance measures by up to 30%.



The OCS is typically employed as a Leadership Development tool either for individual leaders or across teams and work units.

The examples highlighted from 3.4.3.5 > 3.4.3.12 are used in literature from Hay McBer (1998) as examples for organizations/individuals receiving reports.

3.4.3.5 Interpreting the OCS

Climate feedback consists of two profiles – the climate the leader experiences (i.e. self data) and the climate the leader's subordinates experience (i.e. others' data). Below, is a sample graph of how climate data is presented in a feedback report (Hay McBer, 1998). The OCS feedback report also includes useful supplementary sections detailing how to interpret and respond to one's feedback.

Each profile indicates two scores on the six key climate dimensions.

- The dotted line (the Ideal) represents the rater's expectations of how the climate should be.
- The solid line (the Actual) represents the rater's perception of how the climate actually is.

□ The gap between the Actual and Ideal is represented as the shaded area.

Data for the OCS was normed against a data base of 12,457 participants and 262 organisations.

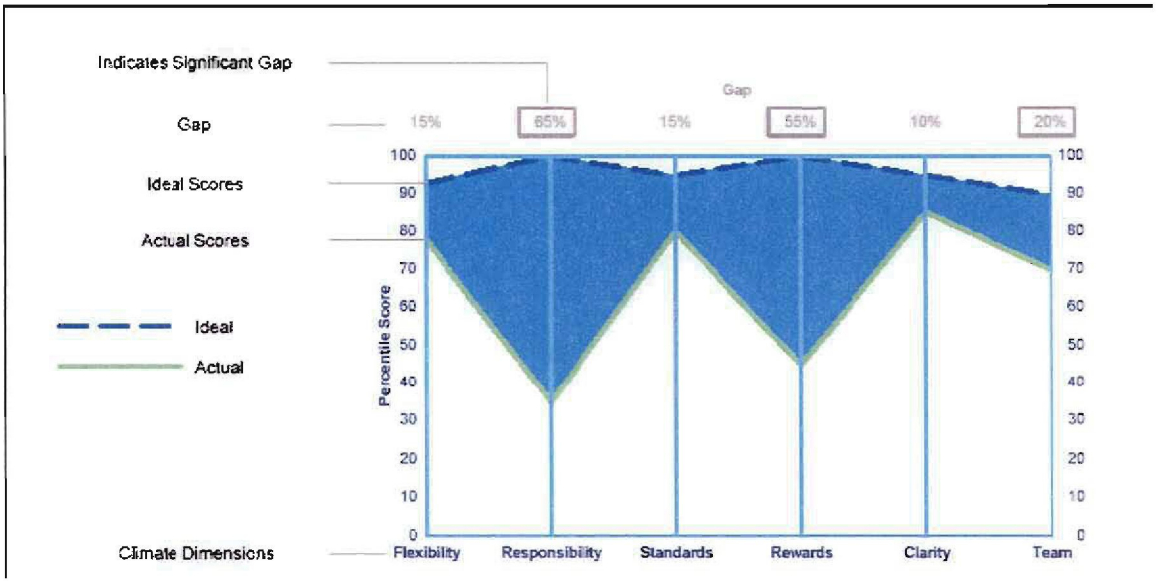


Figure 3.5: OCS Feedback Report (Example)

Where the gap between the Actual and Ideal score exceeds 20 percentile points, there is evidence of a loss of discretionary effort on the part of the raters. Significant gaps (>20%) indicate low or negative climate.

A climate algorithm is often employed in order to determine whether a climate overall is either high, neutral, energizing, or demotivating.

3.4.3.6 Norm Group

The Actual and Ideal scores have been compared with a representative sample of the Hay world-wide database and transformed into percentiles. Percentiles enable comparisons to leaders from other organisations. The higher the percentile, the better a climate relative to the norm group. A percentile of 65, for example, indicates that a score for that dimension is higher than that of 65 percent of the leaders in the norm group which comprised of 262 organisations and 12457 leaders across all geographies, management levels, industries and functions. Research indicates (Hay Group, 2002b) that where the gap (difference) between the Actual and Ideal for any climate dimension exceeds 20 percentile points, there is evidence of a loss of

discretionary (motivated) effort on the part of the respondents. Significant gaps may indicate low or negative climate.

Dimensions where there is a significant gap and the actual line falls at or below the 35th percentile indicates potential for loss of real-time performance output. While a single low score may have relatively little impact on overall climate, more than one low climate dimension indicates an area that needs prompt attention.

It is important for a leader to ensure that the climate versus employees' experience is positive, regardless of what is happening in the larger organization. By comparing the climate the leader experiences to the one the raters experience is a good index of leadership success in this area. For example, if the climate raters experience is stronger than the climate the leader experiences (in other words they have fewer gaps in their climate or their actual line is higher than the leader's), the leader has effectively buffered the team from climate issues outside the group. If, on the other hand, the climate the raters experience is weaker than the climate the leader experiences, it is likely that the leader is passing down or magnifying issues that are impeding their performance.

3.4.3.7 Survey Response (Example Report for each individual)

Each individual nominates up to 6 raters (people who work to him/her).
The OCS profiles are based on the responses of 5 individuals (Self and Direct Reports) as shown below.

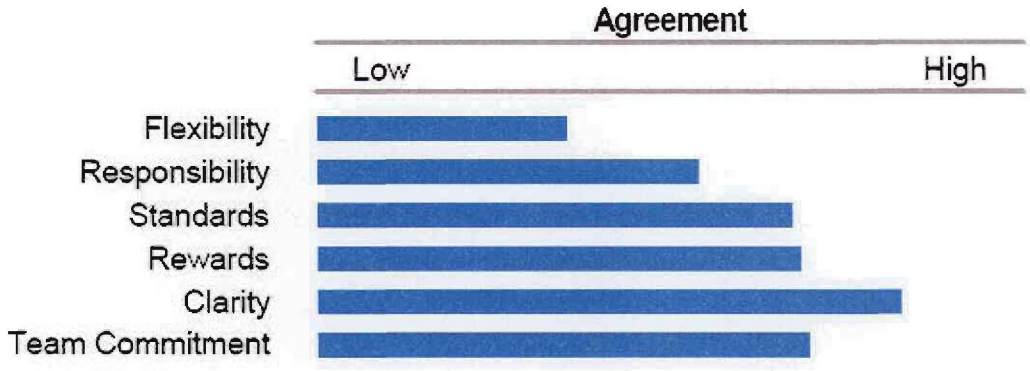
	Surveys		
	Distributed	Received	Processed
Self	1	1	1
Direct Reports	5	5	4

In this example, a total of 6 surveys were distributed. 6 surveys were returned in time to be included in this example feedback report. 1 survey (Direct Reports) was excluded

from processing because it failed a data reliability screen (either too few items were answered to permit meaningful scoring, or the pattern of scores indicate that the individual systematically reversed his/her Actual and Ideal ratings).

3.4.3.8 Rater Agreement (Example Report)

The level of rater agreement for each dimension of the climate the example created is reported below. The higher the agreement, the more consistent the ratings for that dimension.



Low agreement on a climate dimension may be caused by a number of factors e.g. the leader may have different types of interactions with members of the group, or members of the group may experience situations or events in different ways. There may even be geographical or structural factors.

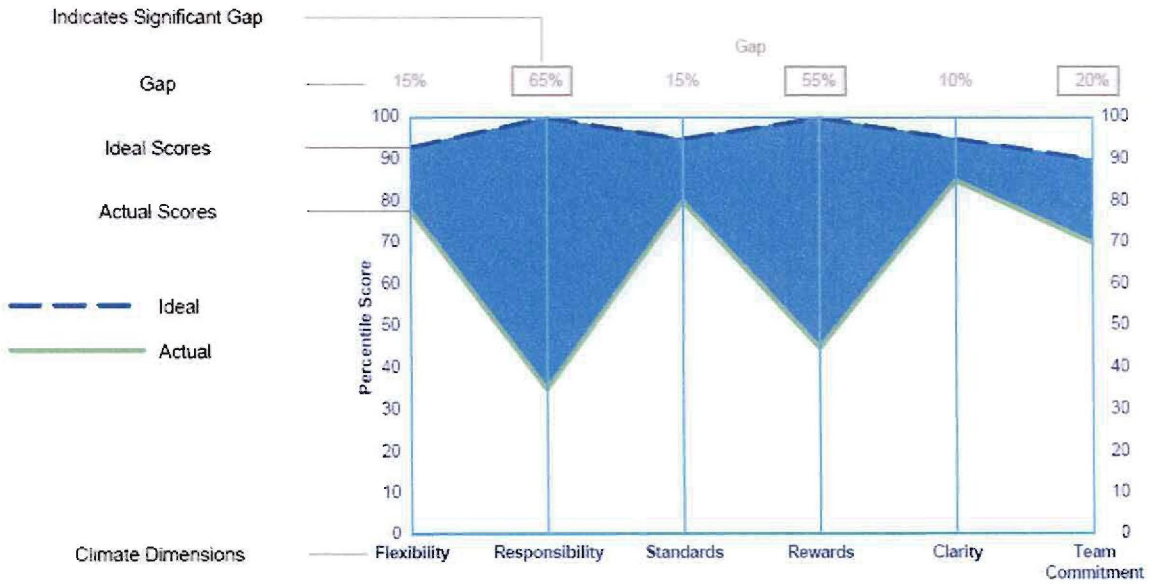


Figure 3.6: Climate Comparison (Example)

The above profile represents the climate experienced in the work group managed by the leader. This profile reflects only perceptions. Perceptions of climate may differ from those of peers.

Dimensions Contributing to Work Climate

The following dimensions are those one perceives to have a direct and positive impact on the leader's ability to do the job well.

Flexibility - There are few unnecessary rules, policies, or practices. New ideas are encouraged.

Responsibility –You have the authority and accountability you need to carry out your job.

Dimensions Detracting from Your Work Climate

The following dimensions are those perceived as impacting negatively discretionary effort or performance.

Standards - Mediocrity is tolerated. Goals are either not challenging enough or unattainable. There is little focus on getting better.

Rewards – One does not feel rewards, feedback, and recognition are provided or are related to performance.

Clarity – One is not clear about priorities or what is expected. One may also be unclear about how the job and tasks fit into the larger goals of the organisation.

Team Commitment – The leader and team members may be working towards the leader's own objectives rather than a common goal.

Ideal ----------
Actual _____

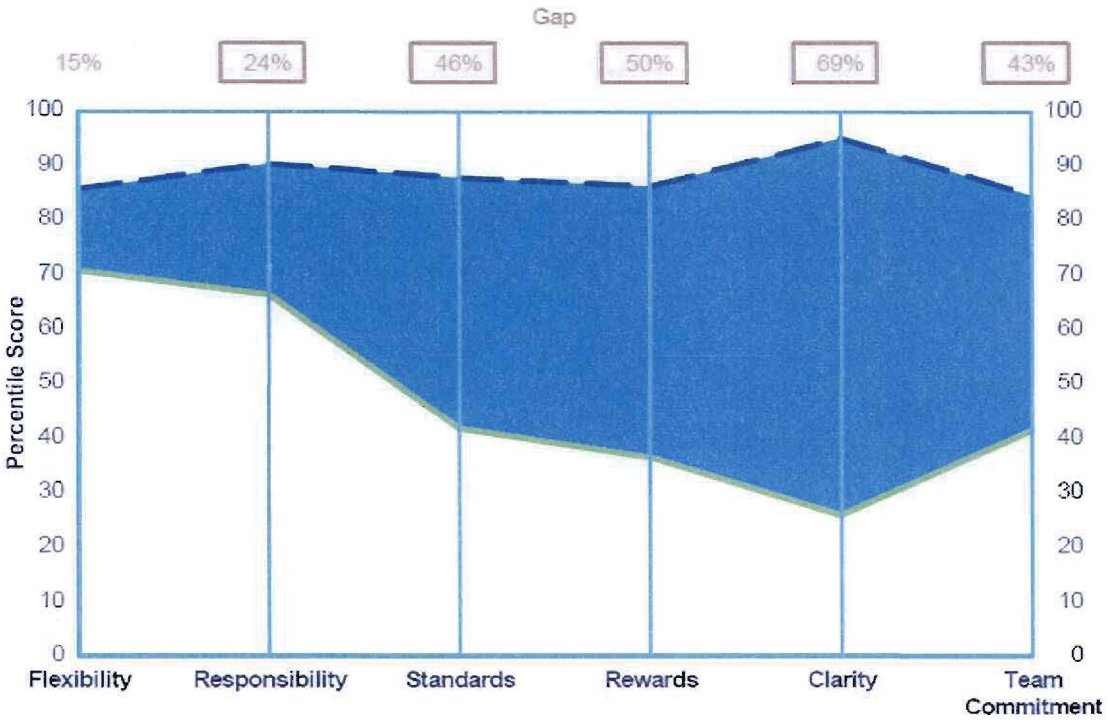


Figure 3.7: Climate Raters Experienced (Example)

The above profile is a summary of the climate that raters in the work group experienced.

3.4.3.9 Dimensions Contributing to Rater Work Climate

The following dimensions are those raters perceived as having a direct and positive impact on their ability to do their jobs well.

Flexibility - There are few unnecessary rules, policies, or practices. New ideas are encouraged.

3.4.3.10 Dimensions Detracting from Rater Work Climate

The following dimensions are those raters perceive as impacting negatively their discretionary effort or performance. These represent opportunities for improving the groups' performance.

Responsibility - Employees are not given the authority and accountability to accomplish their tasks. They need to check for approval before taking action.

Standards - Mediocrity is tolerated. Goals are either not challenging enough or unattainable. There is little focus on getting better.

Rewards - Employees do not feel rewards, feedback, and recognition are provided or are related to performance.

Clarity - Employees are not clear about priorities or what is expected of them. They may also be unclear about how their jobs and tasks fit into the larger goals of the organisation.

Team Commitment - Team members may be working toward their own objectives rather than a common goal.

3.4.3.11 Climate Comparison (Example)

The profiles below show the difference in the climate the leader experiences as compared to the climate the raters experience. If the climate the leader's direct reports are experiencing is weaker than the one the leader experiences, the leader may be passing on to them issues that are affecting their performance. It is the leader's job to buffer staff from these outside forces. If, on the other hand, their climate is stronger than the leader's, then the leader is managing the work environment for the better. It is expected that leaders produce a better climate for their staff than the one created for them.

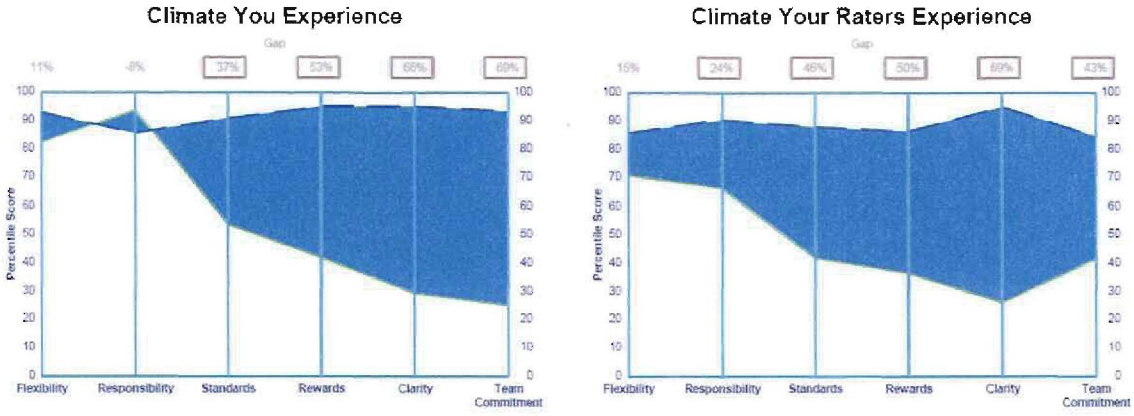


Figure 3.8: Climate Comparison

3.4.3.12 Validating the Climate Data

The leader has just been given some very important feedback about the work climate in the organisation. In doing so, the raters have attempted to tell the leader what it is like to work in the group. They have taken the time to present the leader with an honest reflection of their views and feelings. Their efforts, at the very least, deserve a response. It would be helpful for the leader to check understanding of the issues that

have been raised in the survey. One way to do this is to meet with the direct reports to share and discuss the climate results and to bring issues into the open. Not only will the leader further its own understanding, but the leader will also acknowledge employees' participation in the survey, and share the results of the survey with them directly. They will respond in a way that lets them know that they have been heard, and involve employees in proposed changes.

The organizational climate survey employed is illustrated in Appendix 7.

In summary, the three research instruments selected were performed on all RRDM's and similarly ranked positions within the RFU. All RDO's were also involved. The results with tendencies will be discussed in the next chapter, with a summary, findings and recommendations in the final chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The key aim of the study was to determine the effect of leadership styles competency frameworks on the leadership effectiveness of RRDM's. A further aim was to investigate the impact of organisational climate on the role of the RRDM and those who they lead. The study is founded on the hypothesis that effective leadership hinges on the concepts of leadership styles, personal competencies and organisational climate working symbiotically

To achieve these aims, the following steps were followed:

First step – To identify leadership styles (expressed by behaviours) employed by both the RFU as an organization and by the subjects (n=78), interpreted from both the perspectives of self and of followers.

Second step – To measure the characteristics of both the RFU as an organization and the individual subject RRDM's (n=19), to establish the competencies most likely to promote more effective performance in their organization.

Third step – To describe the organizational climate promoted both by the RFU and experienced by the individual subjects and associated followers (n=78).

Final step – To end with a summary of the most important findings which will have relevance to the aims of the study, with the intention that it will facilitate the discussion of the conclusion in the final chapter.

4.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

As indicated in Chapter 3, the study population consisted of seventy eight full-time employees of the RFU. The population comprised of seventy eight RRDM's, RDO's and similar positions. All seventy eight of the sample enjoy leadership duties as a key focus

of their job descriptions, and the emphasis related to the RRDM's appointed to a key leadership role in 2001. Nineteen of the staff were RRDM's or similar positions. All of the staff were engaged in the LSI and OCS. In the context of this study, it was deemed appropriate to employ the Competency Portfolio on the RRDM's and similar positions (n=19).

4.3 INSTRUMENTS USED AND RESULTS

4.3.1 THE LEADERSHIP STYLES INVENTORY

The sample population (n=78) were analysed as follows. The RDO's (n=59) responded to the leadership styles inventory in relation to their perceptions of the RRDM's as leaders (4.3.1.2). The RRDM's (n=19) responded to the leadership styles inventory in relation to their perceptions of the leadership styles employed by the RFU as an organization (4.3.1.3), although one of the sample's data was deemed invalid. Descriptive statistics of Leadership Styles for the RFU (self and raters) are illustrated in Table 4.1 and presented in figure 4.1.

4.3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Styles – discussion

In interpreting the data for the scores for self, an examination of the mean ($\bar{x}$) as a representation of the data gives an idea of how these means compare to each other. What is not known, however, is how accurate the mean is in describing the data. For example, if some people scored themselves very highly on pacesetting as a style, and an equal number scored the opposite, then the mean is not efficient in describing this polarisation (two "groups"). The standard deviation (*s*), range (*r*) and variance (*v*) statistics gives a sense of how these scores are spread out. These are referred to as measures of dispersion, and indicate how tightly the scores cluster around the mean. As can be seen from the data, the standard deviations for the scores were relatively similar in that they have similar spreads, which is desirable when comparing groups.

In the self data, the affiliative style shows the greatest amount of variance and the highest standard deviation. This suggests that the scores for these 18 people varied the most from each other in terms of how they rated their own affiliative style - another way of expressing that the 18 people in the sample differed the most from each other in terms of affiliation (self). This is followed by democratic, visionary, coaching (which were

quite similar in terms of variance). Individual scores were less likely to differ on the dimensions of the directive and pacesetting styles.

Given there are approximately 'equal variances' (scores go up and down is in each of the leadership styles as much as each other) the mean scores can then be used to compare the different leadership styles. However, there needs to be acknowledgement of the fact that the standard deviation is in double figures, i.e. illustrating that the scores within each of the leadership styles vary slightly from each other in the sample group of 18 participants. For the directive style (self), an *s* of 19.09 and a $\bar{x}$ of 37.58 (as in the table), means that 68.26 % (around 13 people) will score between 56.7 and 18.5. This is derived from adding or subtracting the *s* from $\bar{x}$.

The scores for raters (n=58) again reveal relatively similar variances and standard deviations (i.e. variance = square of standard deviation), and so reliability is secure. The two leadership styles of particular note here are the democratic and coaching styles. In terms of the statistics, they are suggesting that the scores for each of these two leadership styles were less spread out. That is the raters for these 18 people believed that they were quite similar in terms of that leadership style. According to the raters, democratic and coaching styles are used significantly by the 19 RFU participants and most of this sample group scored closely around the mean i.e. in the region of $\bar{x}$ = 75.38 and $\bar{x}$ = 78.19 respectively.

The directive style illustrated the greatest range of scores for the respondents. On this leadership dimension, raters indicated that the 18 participants (subjects of their ratings) varied the most or showed the most difference in scores.

The statistics reveal that there is more variance between self rating than that of the raters i.e. the self reports of the 18 people were more different from each other on each of the dimensions (apart from directive) than were the scores reported by raters who in fact gave scores that were more similar.

	N	$\bar{x}$	s	v	*r*
Directive (Self)	18	37.58	19.09	364.26	73.5
Directive (Raters)	58	40.20	22.71	515.61	76.5
Visionary (Self)	18	60.84	21.88	478.78	65.9
Visionary (Raters)	58	71.36	19.83	393.11	66.9
Affiliative (Self)	18	67.08	25.47	648.64	78
Affiliative (Raters)	58	71.87	21.32	454.33	75.4
Democratic (Self)	18	64.65	21.95	481.84	70.4
Democratic (Raters)	58	75.38	12.12	147.00	44.7
Pacesetting (Self)	18	32.10	19.82	392.66	58.6
Pacesetting (Raters)	58	26.18	19.38	375.46	69.3
Coaching (Self)	18	49.54	21.03	442.13	69
Coaching (Raters)	58	78.19	13.94	194.25	52.7

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics of Leadership Styles for RFU (Self and Raters).

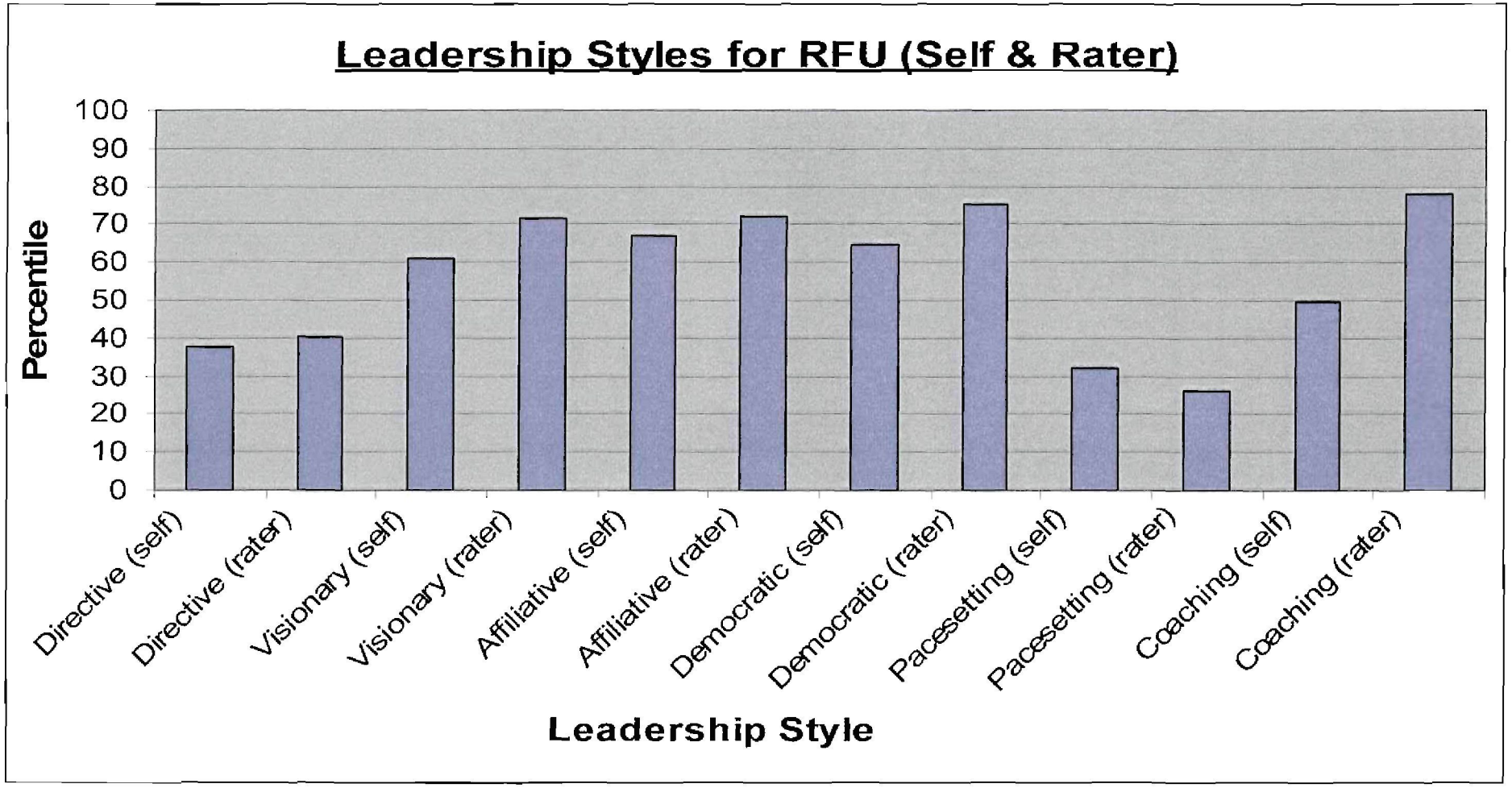


Figure 4.1 Leadership styles for RFU (Self and Rater n=78)

4.3.1.2 The Composite Perceptions of RDO's for the LSI

Fifty nine RDO's were sampled using the LSI as to their perceptions of how they perceived their line managers (RRDM's) employed leadership styles (see figure 4.2). Fifty eight responses were obtained and analysed. The directive and pacesetting leadership styles were deemed to be the less preferred styles. The directive style for the raters (n=59) achieved $\bar{x}$ = 40.2, and the pacesetting style $\bar{x}$ = 26.18. Scores below $\bar{x}$ = 50.0 are not even deemed to be complementary styles. The coaching style was deemed to be the most preferred style ($\bar{x}$ = 78.19), followed by the democratic style ($\bar{x}$ = 75.38), affiliative style ($\bar{x}$ = 71.87) and visionary $\bar{x}$ = 71.36 styles. For each of the two less preferred styles *s* = 22.71 for the directive style compared to *s* = 19.38 for the pacesetting style. For the preferred styles of coaching, democratic, affiliative and visionary, *s* =13.94, 12.12, 21.32 and 19.83 respectively. There were no complementary styles to consider.

Previous similar studies (Bracken et al, 2000) suggest that in the case of the directive leadership style, the RRDM's may be failing to set clear standards of performance and are indecisive in terms of key decisions to be made. Similar research (Shim et al, 2002) indicates that when the employment of the pacesetting style is less preferred, there is potential for a leader (such as an RRDM) to fail in undertaking all his own work personally, whilst failing to give his followers appropriate direction, development and co-ordination. Northouse (1997) refers to the style approach to leadership as focusing on what leaders do and how they act, and indeed what the RRDM's do and how they act appears to be an instrumental factor in the perceptions of the RDO's.

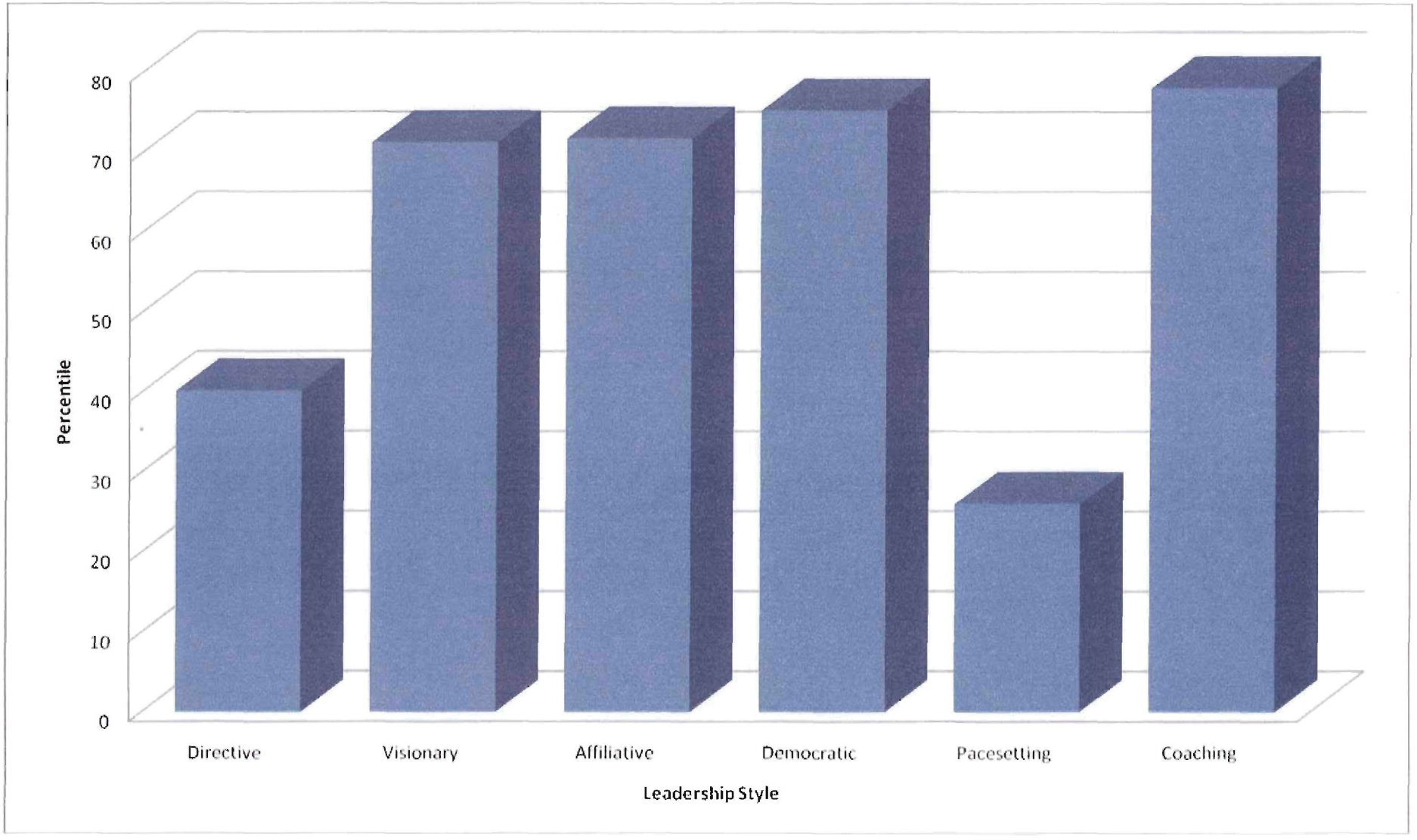


Figure 4.2 Leadership Styles as rated by RDO's (n=59)

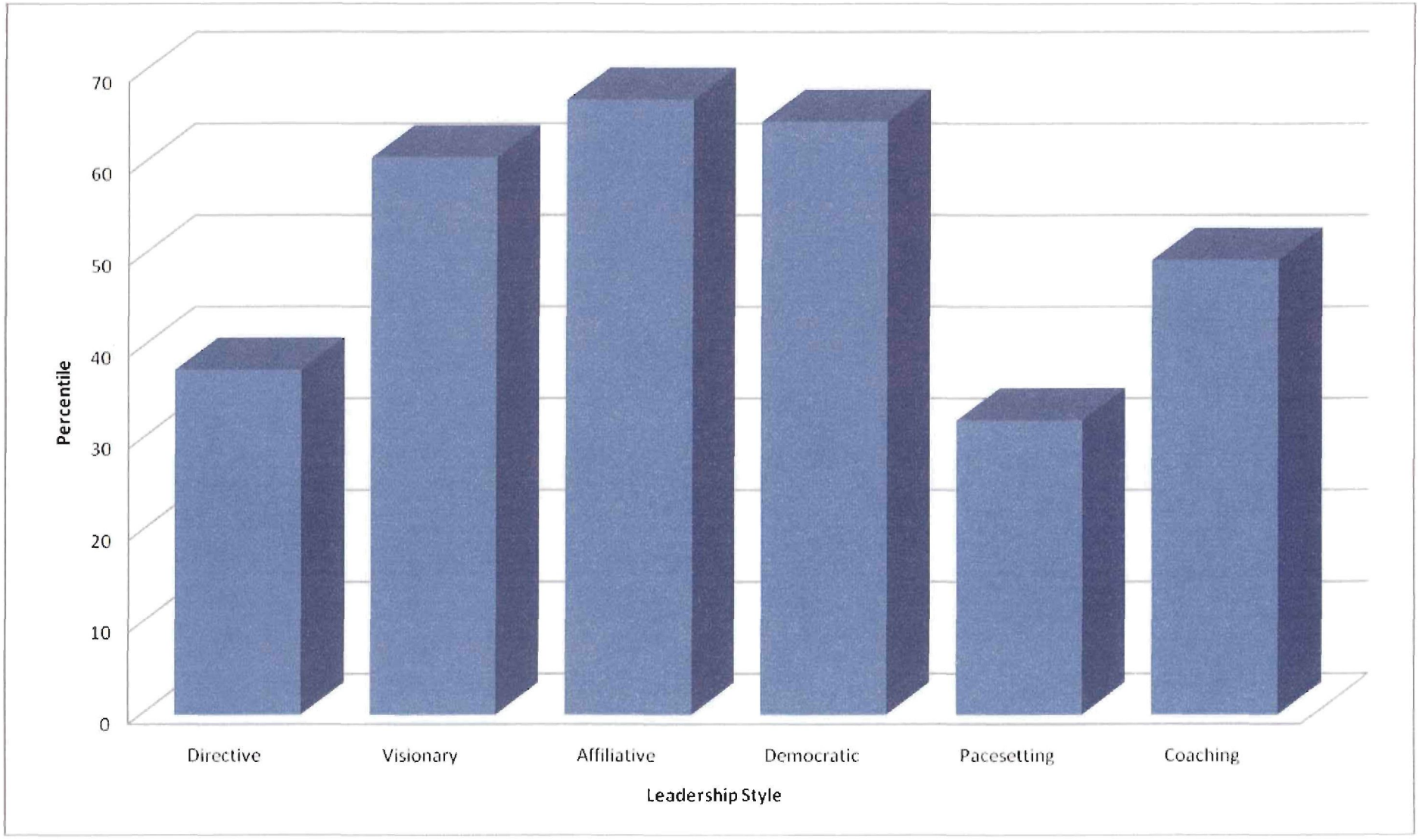


Figure 4.3 Leadership Styles for RFU (Self, n=19)

4.3.1.3 Composite Perceptions of Key RFU Personnel (RRDM's) for the LSI

Nineteen RRDM personnel (or similar tier of management) at the RFU were sampled by employing the sixty eight multi-rater survey illustrated in Appendix 5. Their composite perceptions of the ways in which they employed leadership styles is illustrated in figure 4.3. Similar to the composite perceptions of their raters, the RRDM's as a whole group deemed that the directive and pacesetting styles of leadership were less preferred with scores of $\bar{x}$ = 37.58 and $\bar{x}$ = 32.1 respectively. For each of the two less preferred styles, s = 19.09 for the directive style compared with 19.82 for the pacesetting style. The RRDM's deemed the affiliative style $\bar{x}$ = 67.08 to be the most preferred style, followed by the democratic ($\bar{x}$ = 64.65), the visionary ($\bar{x}$ = 60.84) and coaching ($\bar{x}$ = 49.54) styles. Note that the latter coaching style is deemed to be a back up style by the RRDM's, but the most preferred style ($\bar{x}$ = 78.19) by those who work to them.

The RRDM's rated the affiliative style as the most preferred style in their repertoire, indicating that the RFU as an organization seeks to create an environment where staff and their leaders work in harmony in a culture of professional development encompassing consistent support and feedback (Daft, 1999; Shim et al, 2002;).

4.3.1.4 Case Study RRDM: Participant Version vs Employee Version

The bar graph illustrated in figure 4.4 represents the individual profile of a RRDM's perceptions of the leadership styles he employs. The affiliative ($\bar{x}$ = 71.8), democratic ($\bar{x}$ = 78.6) and coaching ($\bar{x}$ = 73.4) styles are dominant, with the visionary ($\bar{x}$ = 55.1) style being deemed to be a back up style. This latter style is used to complement the dominant style(s), or when the dominant style(s) do not work. A person can have more than one dominant or back up style (Hay McBer, 1998; Shim et al, 2002). The participant appears to perceive the following i.e. that preferred employment of the affiliative leadership style represents his ability to cater for the individual needs of those who work to him, whilst identifying and acting to resolve interpersonal conflict. Perceptions relating to preferred employment of the democratic leadership style purport to the RRDM's belief that he shares decision making, seeks consensus and identifies good performance from individuals who work to him (Marquardt, 2000). The RRDM's perceptions that he employs coaching as a dominant style appears to suggest an aspiration to facilitate his staff in identifying strengths in the quest for their longer term

professional development. Such an aspiration can mean a substitute for immediate performance (Hay McBer, 1998). The directive and pacesetting styles are deemed by the RRDM to be less preferred.

The self report alluded to above seeks to measure the leadership styles (expressed in behavioural terms) that the RRDM believes he demonstrates in the work place. Figure 4.5 represents how the RDO's who work to him perceive he employs leadership styles. Figure 4.5 thus represents how the RRDM actually does employ leadership styles as opposed to how he actually thinks he does. The affiliative ($\bar{x}$ = 71.8) and coaching ($\bar{x}$ = 73.6) styles remain dominant, as are the directive ($\bar{x}$ = 78.6) and visionary ($\bar{x}$ = 74.1) styles, which were deemed by the RRDM as less preferred and back up styles respectively. The RRDM is clearly exhibiting a repertoire of styles conducive to the promotion of setting clear standards in terms of performance, but at the same time accommodating personal needs and keeping to key RFU policies and development plans (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006; Ancona et al, 2007). These types of leadership behaviours are reinforced by Ancona et al (2007) who believes a leader can create harmony (affiliative style) by spending time trying to understand the perspective of others, whilst encouraging them to voice opinions, express ideas and explain their reasoning processes. A vision and rationale is clearly being articulated by the RRDM, and research by Nwankwo (1996) illustrates that the concept of a 'vision' should underpin leadership. The preferred employment of the coaching style is a positive feature, and Anders Ericsson et al (2007) alludes to 'new' research indicating that outstanding performance is the product of deliberate coaching.

The raters of the RRDM deemed that the democratic and pacesetting leadership styles employed were less preferred styles, indicating the raters' belief that the RRDM needs to share decision making more, promote participative meetings and seek consensus, whilst leading by example and insisting on excellence (Hughes et al, 2006; Pierce and Newstrom, 2006;).

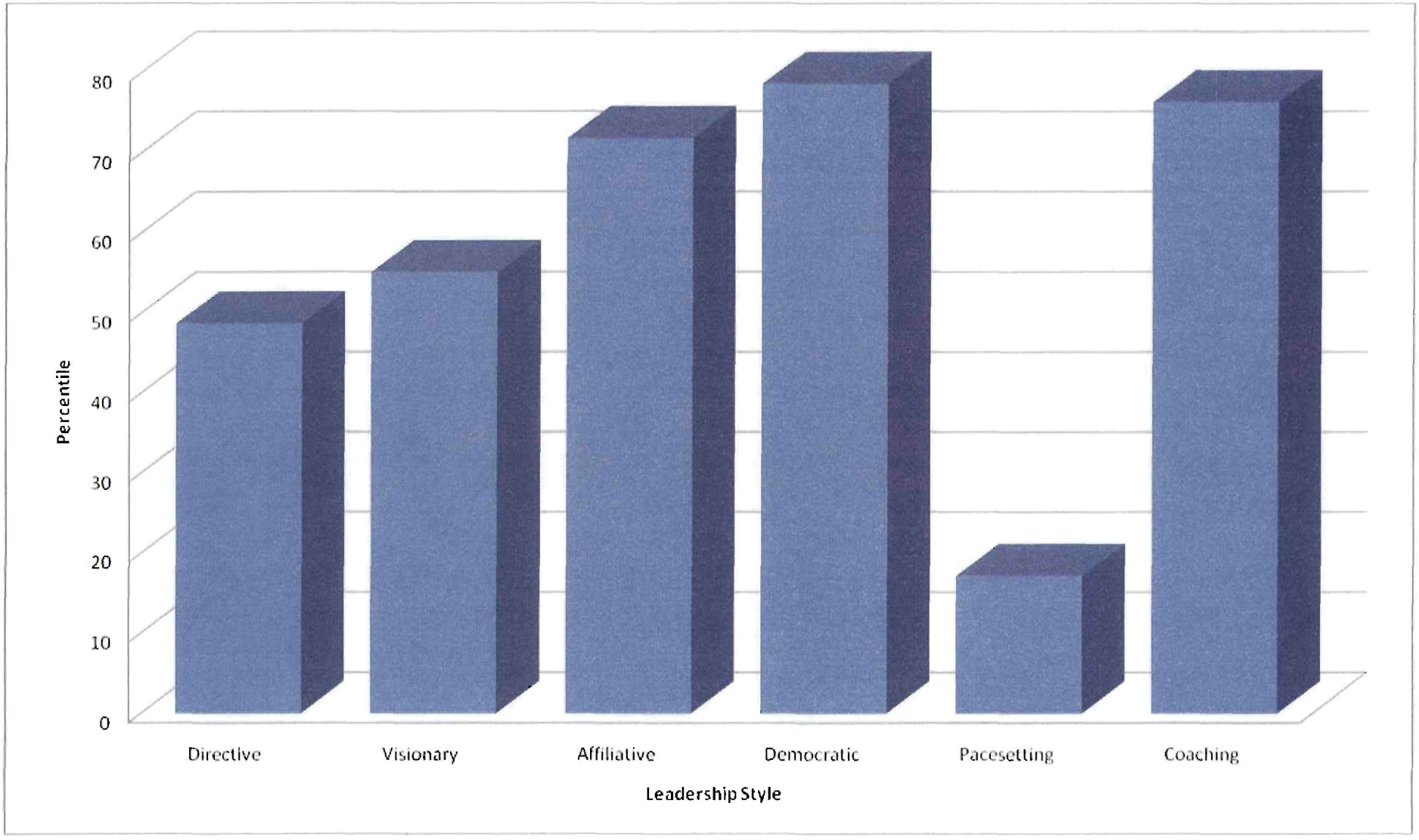


Figure 4.4 Case Study RRDM: Participant Version for the LSI

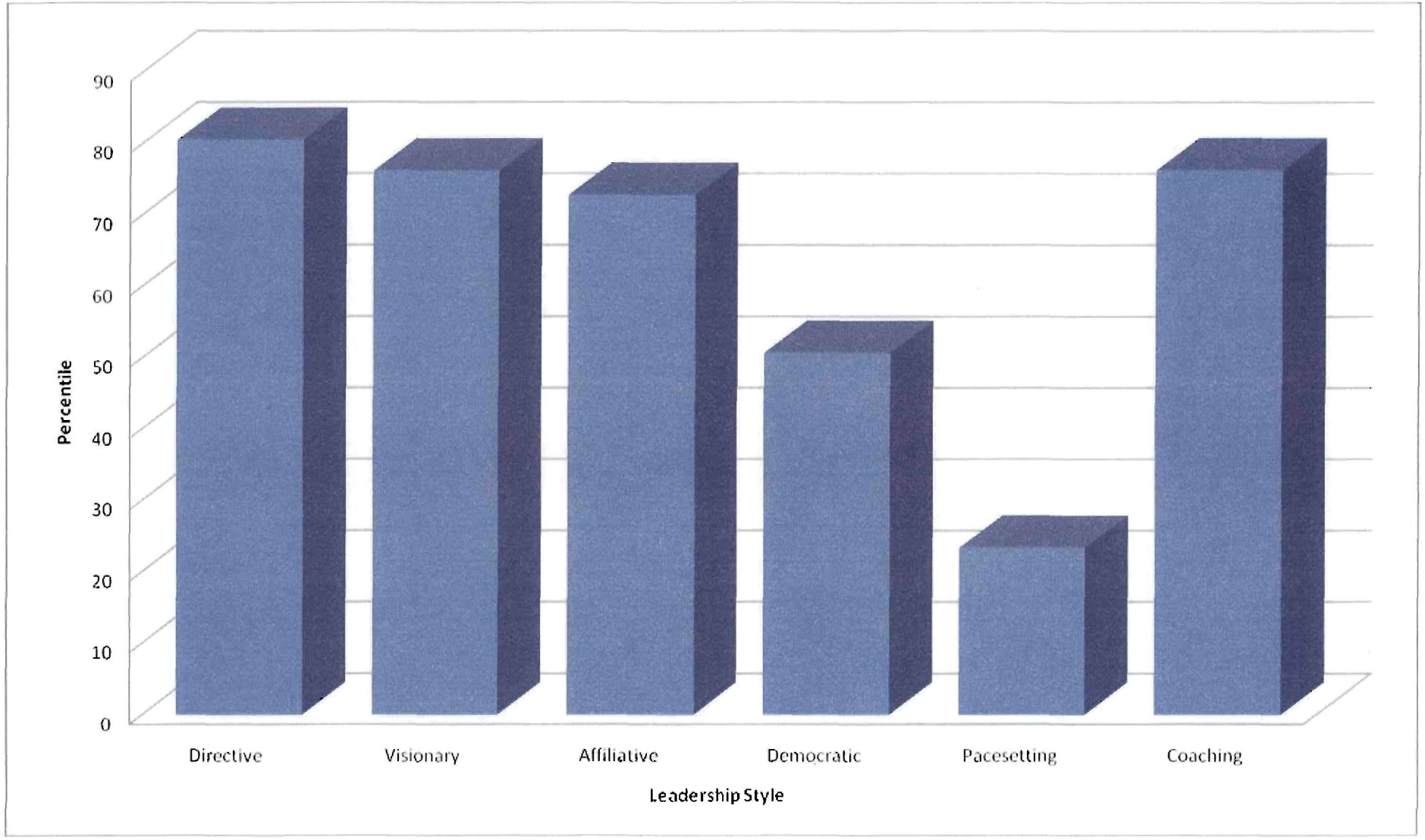


Figure 4.5: Case Study RRDM: Employee Version for the LSI

4.3.1.5 Summary

From the perspective of the RDO followers who work to the RRDM's, the visionary, affiliative, democratic and coaching leadership styles are dominant styles employed. The directive and pacesetting styles of leadership are less preferred styles of leadership employed by the RRDM's. From the perspective of the key focus group of this study (the RRDM's), the visionary, affiliative, democratic and coaching styles are dominant styles employed by the RFU as an organization, with the directive and pacesetting leadership styles the less preferred styles to be employed by the RFU as an organisation.

The case study subject perceived that the affiliative, democratic and coaching leadership styles were the dominant styles he employed with the visionary style being perceived to be a back up style. The directive and pacesetting styles were less preferred. The case study subject's raters actually perceive that the directive, visionary, affiliative and coaching leadership styles are dominant, with the democratic style and the pacesetting styles being less preferred styles.

Studies by Spreier et al (2006) refer to how ineffective employment of the directive and pacesetting leadership styles, for example, actually suppress work climate attributes that contribute to high performance, especially in terms of the flexibility, responsibility and team commitment dimensions, and the extent to which feedback and rewards are linked to performance (see 4.4)

4.3.2 COMPETENCY PORTFOLIO

Section 4.3.2.2 summarises, discusses and analyses the results of 17 individual assessments. 2 of the sample were omitted because was not enough data accrued. In addition to rating himself, each individual was rated by up to 5 perspectives:

- Manager
- Colleagues
- Peers
- Others
- Customers

The results reported are based on the combined assessment of the non-self raters.

All RRDM's (and similar personnel) within the RFU (n=19) were analysed using the instrument described in 3.4.2.4 and illustrated in appendix 6. Descriptive statistics for the RFU competency model are illustrated in Table 4.2. Responses to competencies are highlighted in relation to the RFU as a workforce (4.3.2.3) and case study individuals (from 4.3.2.18).

4.3.2.1 Portfolio Interpretation

The report is colour coded. Throughout the competency portfolio results in this chapter, three colours are used i.e. green, yellow and red. The colours represent the following:

Green signifies that a criteria (i.e. target level) has been met or exceeded.

Yellow signifies that a criteria is close to being met (i.e. within one level of meeting a target).

Red signifies that a criteria has not been met, and that a significant investment will have to be made to reach the criteria.

Data will often be presented in a bar displaying up to all three colours. The total length of the bar represents 100% of the group. The length of each of the colours represents the proportion of the group meeting the criteria for a competency. For example:



In the bar above, 50 of the individuals met or exceeded the criteria, 25 of the individuals were close to meeting the criteria, and 25 of the individuals needed significant development to meet the criteria.

4.3.2.2 Descriptive Statistics for Competency Portfolio - discussion

Of significance from these results is that the competencies of integrity and relationship building illustrate the lowest levels of variance (v= 0.08 and v= 0.1 respectively) in that the values cluster more tightly around the mean. In real terms, it reveals that for integrity ($\bar{x}$ = 3.23) that most participants in the sample felt that people 'act on values even when difficult' i.e. level 3 in the output. The statistics also indicate that the majority of the participants' scores are around this figure e.g. conceptual thinking ($\bar{x}$ = 3.86), flexibility ($\bar{x}$ = 3.18), organizational savvy ($\bar{x}$ = 3.94).

Relationship building in a similar vein also has scores clustered tightly around the mean. With $\bar{x}$ = 3.51 and s= 68.26%, the group will have scores for relationship building between 3.82 and 3.2. Therefore in real terms, participants sit between level 3 and level 4 which refers to 'making social contracts' and 'developing strong personal relationships'.

Team leadership achieved $\bar{x}$ = 4.74 and s= .62, indicating that 68.26 % of the scores will be one standard deviation from the mean i.e. +/- .62 from the mean. 68.26% of the population fall between the figures of 5.36 and 4.12. In real terms it means that across the 17 participants that some13 of them will 'position themselves as the leader' (level 5) while some others will sit closer to level 4 'takes care of the team' and level 6 'creates a compelling team vision'. It suggests that generally there are not scores spread across the range of 1-6 and that most scores are localised around the mean. Strategic perspective and driving for results also show larger variance scores i.e. v= 2.8 and v= 2.1 respectively.

Even the largest standard deviation in this range of competencies is still only .68 for strategic perspective, which realistically indicates that 68.26 % of the participants are less than one level above or below the mean. The scores for the 17 participants do not vary much from each other. Even the largest standard deviation of .68 for strategic perspective is not that pronounced. For example strategic perspective for the RFU has a mean of 4.61 i.e. all 17 scores are best represented by $\bar{x}$ = 4.61 (despite the fact that it does not exist in any real way). As most of the sample is going to be .68 above or below this score, then most participants are going to be positioned between level 4 and level 5, suggesting that they 'link daily actions to strategies' and 'understand external impact on strategy'.

In relation to the scales in the competency models, some of the developmentally scaled competencies have a range of 4, while some have 5 and some 6. The two competencies with the lowest variation also have a limited range i.e. the competencies of relationship building and integrity only have a narrow range of 4. As a result a lower standard deviation figures on these competencies is expected. Whilst the means are a sound basis for representing the data for each of the competencies, caution must be exercised in their interpretation because a score of 3 in 'relationship building' (has 4 levels) is not the same as a 3 on 'team leadership' which has 6 levels. Each of the competencies should therefore be examined individually and comparisons between groups being more limited, as proposed by Daft (1999).

Competency model for total others	N	$\bar{x}$	s	v	r
Analytical Thinking	17	3.14	0.33	0.11	1.3
Conceptual Thinking	17	3.86	0.44	0.19	1.6
Driving for Results	17	4.53	0.64	0.41	2.1
Developing Talent	17	3.99	0.39	0.15	1.4
Environmental Scanning	17	4.14	0.42	0.18	1.4
Flexibility	17	3.18	0.42	0.18	1.6
Impact and Influence	17	4.49	0.50	0.25	1.9
Integrity	17	3.23	0.28	0.08	0.9
Organizational Savvy	17	3.94	0.33	0.11	1.3
Relationship Building	17	3.51	0.31	0.10	1.1
Self Confidence	17	4.03	0.44	0.19	1.6
Strategic Perspective	17	4.61	0.68	0.46	2.8
Teamwork and Cooperation	17	4.19	0.44	0.19	1.8
Team Leadership	17	4.74	0.62	0.38	2.3

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics for Competency Model (RFU)

4.3.2.3 Competency Portfolio Workforce Audit Report for the RFU

This report is summarised in figure 4.6. Of the 14 competencies assessed, the RFU as an organization exhibits 8 of the competencies as a strength. The competencies deemed to be a strength are those of team leadership (15 participants meeting/exceeding target level), organisational savvy (17 participants meeting/exceeding target level), analytical thinking (14 participants meeting/exceeding target level), integrity (14 participants meeting/exceeding target level), flexibility (13 participants meeting/exceeding target level), impact and influence (13 participants meeting/exceeding target level), team work and cooperation (17 participants meeting/exceeding target level) and relationship building (16 participants meeting/exceeding target level). The competencies not deemed to be a strength are those relating to developing talent (9 participants meeting/exceeding target level), strategic perspective (4 participants meeting/exceeding target level), environmental scanning (12 participants meeting/exceeding target level), conceptual thinking (8 participants meeting/exceeding target level), driving for results (5 participants meeting/exceeding target level) and self-confidence (10 participants meeting/exceeding target level). In the case of strategic perspective, 3 participants revealed themselves as needing significant investment in terms of reaching the criteria. This was also the case for conceptual thinking (1 participant) and driving for results (5 participants).

Such a pattern is similar to various research studies (Drago and Clements, 1999) which suggest that lack of competence with a range of characteristics can negatively impact on a leader's ability to plan and achieve long term objectives. Hughes et al (2006) stress that the competencies approach maintains that people behave the way they do because of the strengths of the traits they possess, which immediately portrays that the RFU as an organization lacks effectiveness in almost half of the competencies deemed appropriate for this study.

Workforce Audit Summary

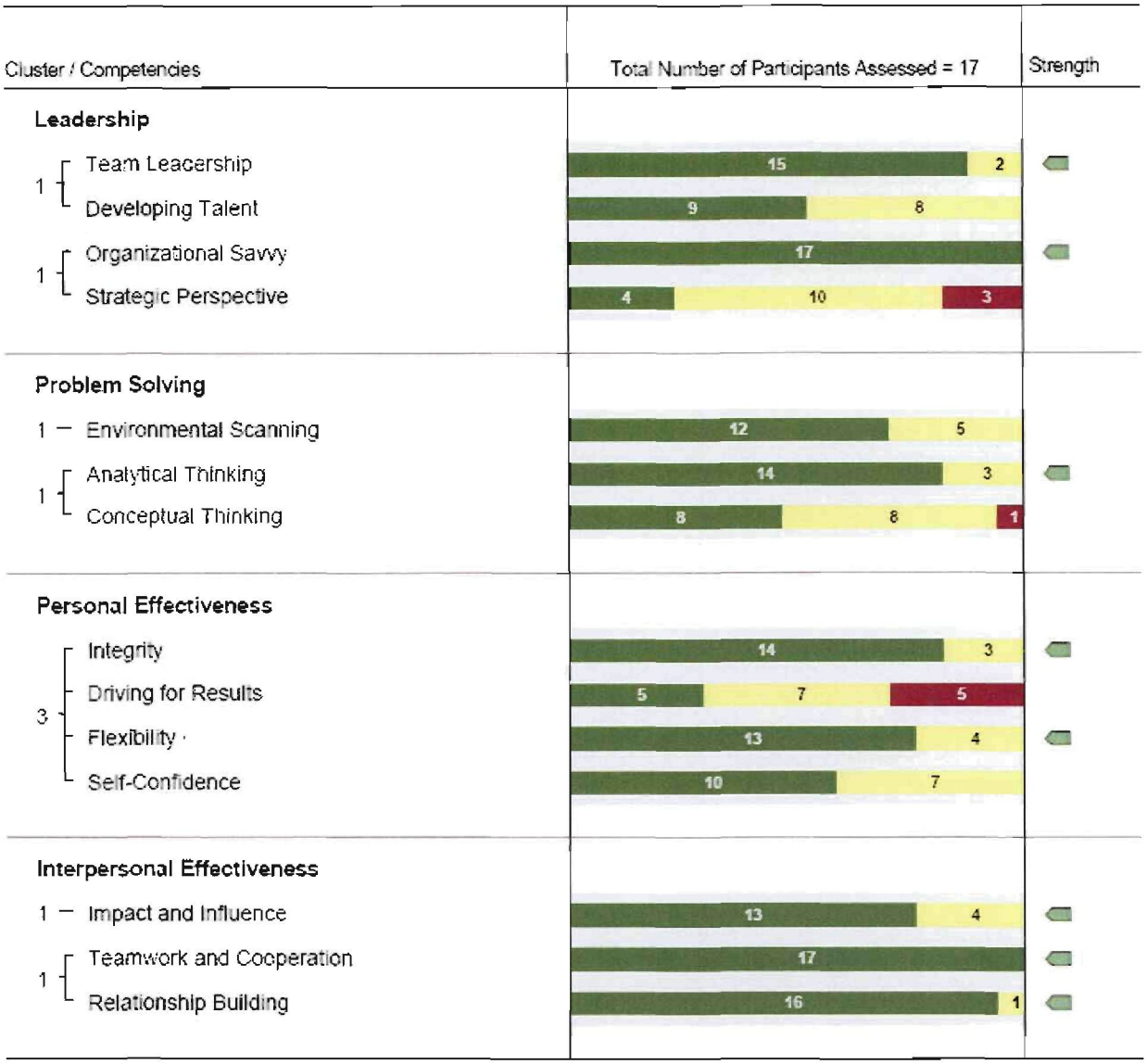


Figure 4.6: Competency Portfolio Workforce Audit Report for the RFU.

Individual discussion of different components follows:

4.3.2.4 Team Leadership

The competency of team leadership was deemed a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Target levels were achieved ($\bar{x}$ = 4.74 and s= 0.62) in terms of promoting productivity by protecting the group and its reputation and making sure the

needs of the team (personnel, resources etc.) are met. A raft of research (Northouse, 1997; Daft, 1999; Hughes et al, 2006;) recognize the value of "team building" workshops in the quest to facilitate a leader's effectiveness in helping team members understand how team objective can be achieved. Team leadership competency facilitates the leader's ability to promote collaborative effort, and cater for the synergies created through group cohesiveness (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006;). The RFU as an organization clearly values its' ability to work with others in the quest to achieve shared goals, with evidence that staff within the organization understand the organisation's vision, targets and values e.g. the 2006 strategic plan (see 2.9.1). The participative style of leadership promotes a culture conducive to a positive teamworking environment.

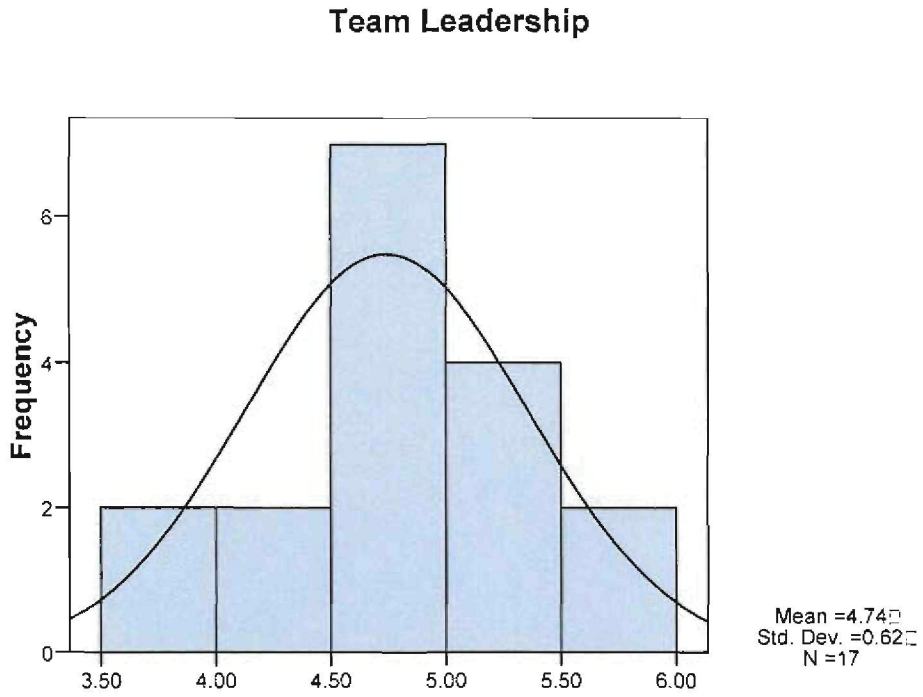


Figure 4.7: Team Leadership

Level	Item #	Team Leadership		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	4	Manage meetings well (e.g., provide agenda, state objectives, manage time).	14 3				9	9	3	
2	61	Let people affected by a decision know what is happening.	17			1	9	11		
3	44	Use a variety of strategies to promote team morale and productivity.	14 3			2	4	9	3	
3	91	Make decisions and resolve group problems in ways that are acceptable to all parties.	17			1	6	10		
4	59	Promote productivity by protecting the group and its reputation.	15 2				3	12	2	
4	66	Make sure the needs of the team (personnel, resources, etc.) are met.	14 3				8	9	3	
5	21	Celebrate team successes.	11 6				2	3	6	
5	33	Promote broader organisational effectiveness by linking efforts of multiple groups or teams.	14 3			1	4	9	3	
6	1	Create a compelling vision that generates excitement, enthusiasm and commitment to the group's mission.	1 12 4		1		7	9	4	

Table 4.3: Team Leadership – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.5 Developing Talent

The competency of developing talent was not deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Although the target level was met in terms of reassuring others after setbacks or disappointments (see Table 4.4), values of $\bar{\tau}$= 3.99 and s = 0.392, and the category distribution was not conducive to achieving the appropriate level for this competency to be deemed competent. Very recent research (Goffee and Jones, 2007; Parsons and Pascale, 2007) refers to the notion that talented people are more difficult to lead and that they are often attuned to highly developed networks of knowledge where who they know often outweighs what they know. Indeed, Parsons and Pascale (2007) warn that successful careers are not just straight lines upwards, and guards against 'plateauing out' towards a descending phase involving a drop in performance and career threatening behavioural activity.

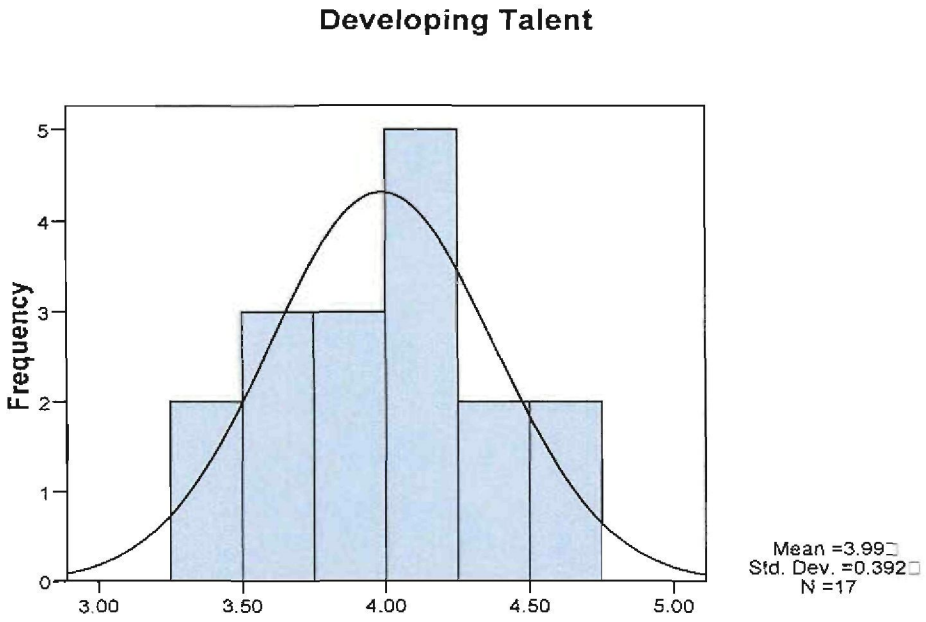


Figure 4.8: Developing Talent

Level	Item #	Developing Talent		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	42	Encourage people to develop.	10 7				1	9	7	
2	96	Give instructions or on-the-job directions to facilitate learning and development.	14 3				4	10	3	
3	74	Give directions or demonstrations with reasons or rationale to others as a training strategy.	16 1				4	12	1	
3	89	Encourage others to identify the lessons learned rather than simply providing the answer.	17				5	12		
4	40	Reassure others after setbacks or disappointments.	15 2				7	8	2	
5	63	Arrange for appropriate assignments, formal training, or other experiences to foster people's learning and development.	14 3				4	10	3	
5	92	Protect or buffer others as appropriate to promote the accomplishment of learning objectives	17			1	10	6		

Table 4.4 Developing Talent – category distribution by item

4.3.2.6 Organisational Savvy

The competency referred to as organizational savvy was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Target levels were achieved (see Table 4.5) in relation to knowing what is and what is not possible at certain times and in certain positions, and in terms of using a corporate culture and language that will produce the best response. Scores of $\bar{x} = 3.94$ and $s = 0.326$ were achieved.

Early research (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1990) and recent studies (Goffee and Jones, 2007) refer to ways in which the more talented, for example, exhibit organizational savvy by quickly finding the organisation's context which will most generously fund their interests. Goffee and Jones (2007) allude further to the notion of leading 'clever people', and suggest that such people will often engage in elaborate plans to advance their own interests. The competency of organisational savvy better equips a leader to deal with the dynamics of different groups to positive effect.

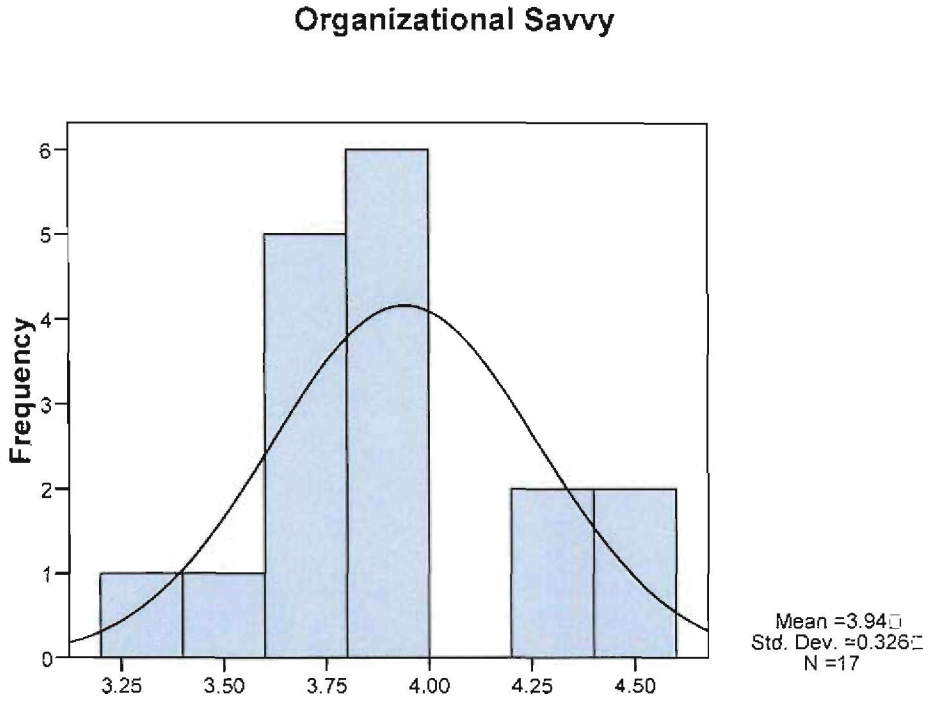


Figure 4.9: Organisational Savvy

Level	Item #	Organizational Savvy		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	73	Use the formal structure or hierarchy (e.g., the "chain of command", positional power, rules and regulations, etc.) to get things done.	16 1			1	5	10	1	
2	61	Use informal organisational structures (i.e., key actors, decision-influences, etc.) to get things done when the formal structure must be supplemented.	16 1			1	6	9	1	
3	54	Know what is and what is not possible at certain times and in certain positions.	17				8	9		
3	80	Use the corporate culture and language that will produce the best response.	16 1			1	9	6	1	
4	78	Use his/her knowledge of the perspectives and agendas of key individuals and constituencies to get things done.	16 1				2	14	1	
4	83	Understand ongoing power and political relationships within the organisation.	15 2				4	11	2	
	9	Understand what it will take to address or resolve underlying reasons for long-term organisational behaviour.	17			1	6	10		

Table 4.5: Organisational Savvy – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.7 Strategic Perspective

The competency strategic perspective was not deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Target levels (see Table 4.6) were not achieved ($\bar{x}$ = 4.61 and s = 0.68) in terms of considering how organizational policies, processes, and methods might need to change in response to economic, political, social and cultural developments and trends, and in demonstrating awareness of the projected directions of the industry and how changes might impact the company.

Various researchers (Daft, 1999; Ready, 2004) purport to a need to listen to people both inside and outside an organization, whilst Bower and Gilbert (2007) recognize that a strategic perspective will only be realized if it is in sympathy with the resource allocation made at every level of the organization.

Research highlighted by Tait (1997) illustrates that three out of four organizations do not possess a formal strategic perspective, and one in two deem strategic perspectives as an insignificant policy in pursuit of their organisation's aims.

The RFU's lack of competency in terms of a strategic perspective may mean that it exhibits a tendency to act before taking wider implications into account. Indeed, as an

organization it may experience difficulty in applying models of best practice to its' strategic policies.

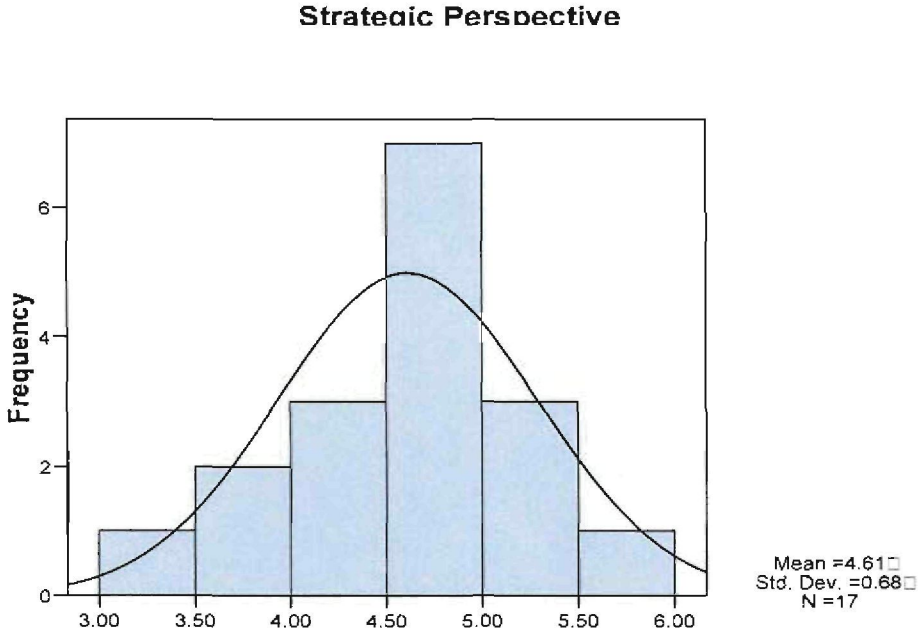


Figure 4.10: Strategic Perspective

Level	Item #	Strategic Perspective		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	7	Demonstrate understanding of organisational goals and strategies developed by others.	14 3			1	4	9	3	
2	20	Act in accordance with strategic objectives or goals established by the organisation.	13 4				4	9	4	
3	56	Think beyond day-to-day activities to consider longer-term issues, problems or opportunities affecting the organisation.	14 3			1	2	11	3	
4	95	Find ways to link possible opportunities to the organisation's overall strategic plan.	15 2				6	9	2	
5	22	Consider how organisational policies, processes, and methods might need to change in response to economic, political, social and cultural developments and trends.	16 1			1	7	8	1	
5	36	Demonstrate awareness of the projected directions of the industry and how changes might impact the company	15 2			2	5	8	2	
6	24	Establish a well-integrated, strategic course of action to accomplish a long-term goal or vision, including developing multiple scenarios and contingency plans for a variety of potential problems or developments.	1 14 2		1	2	3	9	2	

Table 4.6: Strategic Perspective – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.8 Environmental Scanning

The competency of environmental scanning was not deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. The target level (see Table 4.7) was not achieved in terms of engaging in a deliberate and systematic effort to obtain needed data ($\bar{x}$ = 4.14 and s = 0.42). Only three participants fully met the target level.

Leaders are clearly lacking knowledge in relation to the organisation's history, previous performance and current issues and challenges (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b). Research by Saffo (2007) reinforces the notion that environmental scanning is about identifying a full range of possibilities as opposed to a limited set of certainties. He defines a 'Cone of Uncertainty' which depends on a leader's competence in relying on intuition and judgement, and being aware that change rarely occurs in a straight line. An ability to look back twice as far as forward was also considered crucial.

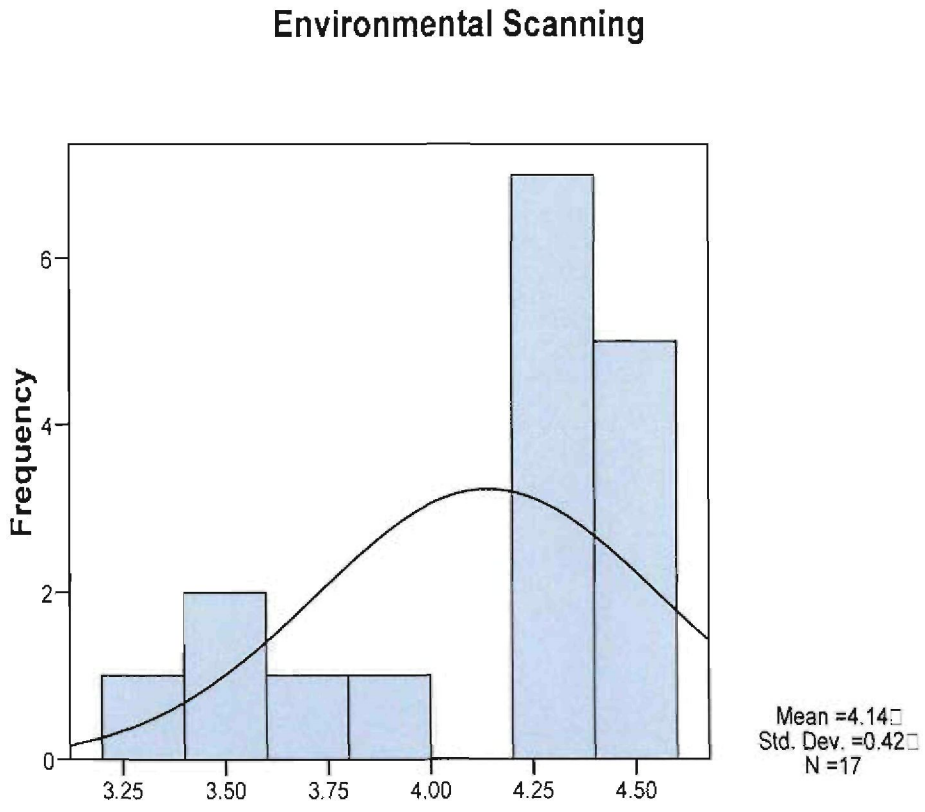


Figure 4.11: Environmental Scanning

Level	Item #	Environmental Scanning		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	2	Use easily available sources to obtain information.	15 2			1	3	11	2	
	39	Personally get out to investigate a problem or situation.	10 7				2	8	7	
	96	Probe beyond surface answers to get at the root of a problem or situation.	16 1				4	12	1	
	58	Engage in a deliberate and systematic effort to obtain needed data.	16 1			1	3	12	1	
	46	Establish and use on-going systems to obtain information and stay up-to-date.	14 3				4	10	3	
	71	Establish a network of others to keep him/her informed of relevant or potentially useful information.	14 3				3	11	3	

Table 4.7: Environmental Scanning – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.9 Analytical Thinking

The competency of analytical thinking was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. The target level (see Table 4.8) was achieved ($\bar{x}$ = 3.14 and s = 0.326) in terms of anticipating obstacles and thinking ahead to possible solutions. Fourteen of the participants fully met the target level.

Such an ability to think logically whilst dissecting key issues in the quest to identify cause and effect is a key feature of effective leadership (Prewitt, 2003). Recent debate (Martin, 2007) points to the way in which effective leadership includes a welcoming of complexity with the view that the best answers come from such a domain. He refers to four stages of decision making that affects analytical thinking, drawing pertinent reference to 'analysing causality' which in this context purports to how a leader analyses how numerous salient factors can relate to each other.

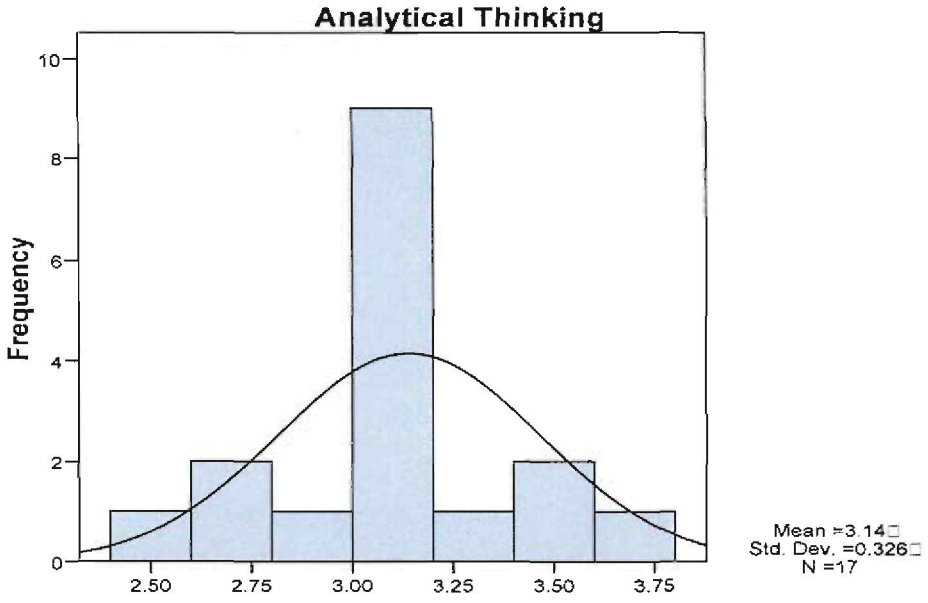


Figure 4.12: Analytical Thinking

Level	Item #	Analytical Thinking		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	35	Break problems into manageable components or lists of simple tasks.	17				7	10		
2	41	Identify basic relationships (e.g., single link, A leads to B) among parts of a problem or issue.	16 1				7	9	1	
2	77	Explicitly identify and consider the pros and cons associated with possible solutions.	17			1	5	11		
3	50	Anticipate obstacles and think ahead to possible solutions.	16 1			1	5	10	1	
4	90	Use a variety of analytical techniques to explore potential alternative causes of problems, identify alternative solutions, and weigh their relative merits.	16 1			2	11	3	1	

Table 4.8: Analytical Thinking – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.10 Conceptual Thinking

The competency of conceptual thinking was not deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Target levels (see Table 4.9) were not met ($\bar{x}$ = 3.86) and s= 0.44) in terms of developing structures or frameworks that help clarify what is going on or what is most important in a situation, and in terms of integrating many pieces of discrete information, ideas, issues or observations in a succinct and meaningful way. The ability to think conceptually includes a sympathy with resolving complex issues by the creation of new concepts, ideals and theoretical models (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002c), and research by Martin (2007) concurs with a view that effective leaders are conceptual thinkers who engage in cognitive processes that promote positive styles of leadership.

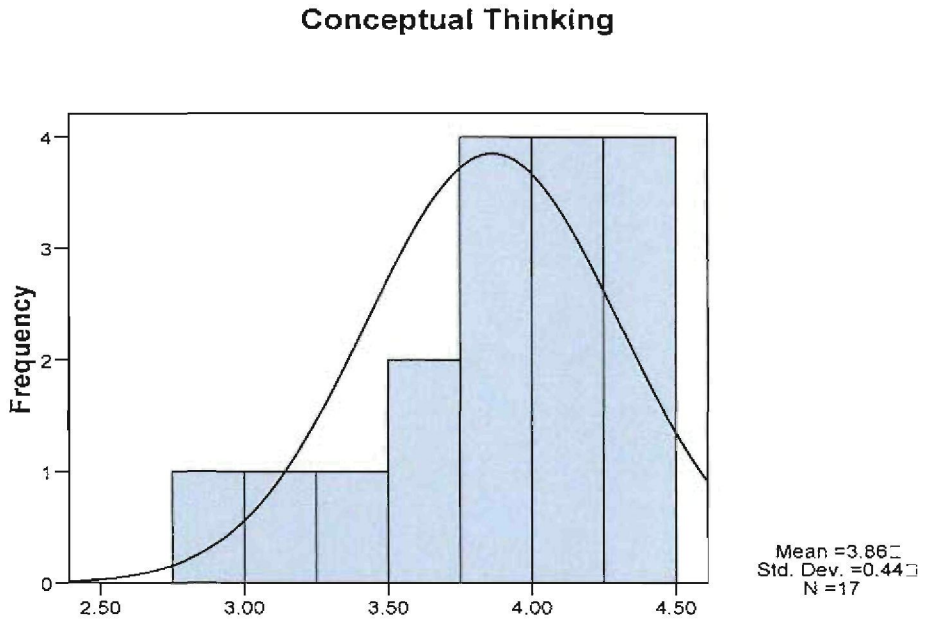


Figure 4.13: Conceptual Thinking

Level	Item #	Conceptual Thinking		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	25	Use simple rules (e.g., "rules of thumb" common sense, etc) to identify problems.	13 4			1	1	11	4	
2	76	Notice when a current situation resembles a past one and identify the specific similarities and/or differences.	17				6	11		
3	34	Apply complex learned concepts or methods to explain or resolve problems.	16 1			4	6	6	1	
4	23	Develop structures or frameworks that help clarify what is going on or what is most important in a situation.	13 4			1	3	9	4	
4	28	Integrate many pieces of discrete information, ideas, issues or observations, which may not be related to one another, in a succinct and meaningful way.	15 2			1	7	7	2	
5	43	Explain situations or resolve complex problems by redefining them in useful new ways.	17			1	6	10		
5	55	Explain situations or resolve complex problems by creating new concepts, models or theories.	17			3	7	7		

Table 4.9: Conceptual Thinking – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.11 Integrity

The competency of integrity was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. The target level (see Table 4.10) was met ($\bar{x}$ = 3.23 and s= 0.278) in terms of acting on values even when it is not easy to do so. For example, speaking out even when it may hurt a friend or damage a relationship. Fourteen of the participants fully met the target level. The taking of action based on values when there is substantial risk involved is an effective form of leadership (Prewitt, 2003; Pierce and Newstrom, 2006; Hughes et al, 2006). An effective leader should always strive to promote a culture in which opinions can be shared freely, and where diversity is valued and new ideas received positively (Daft, 1999; Hay Acquisition Company, 2002c). Hughes et al (2006) put the case that whatever 'true leadership' meant, that most people would agree that as a minimum it would be characterized by a high degree of trust between the leader and followers.

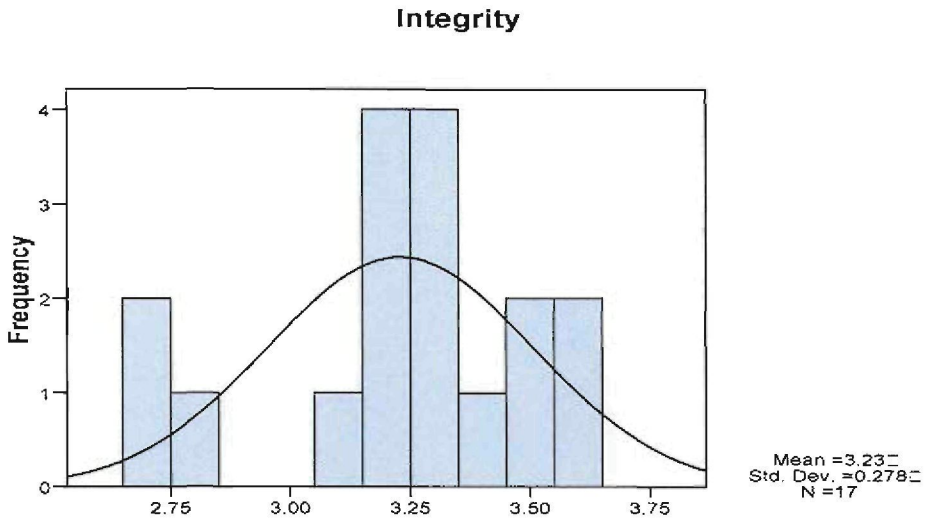


Figure 4.14: Integrity

Level	Item #	Integrity		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	68	Communicate intentions, ideas and feelings openly and directly.	17				4	13		
2	93	Behave consistently with his/her values and beliefs.	8 9				2	6	9	
3	51	Act on values even when it is not easy to do so (e.g., speak out even when it may hurt a friend or damage a relationship).	17				8	9		
4	12	Take action based on values even when there is a significant cost or risk in doing so (e.g., refuse an assignment rather than engage in unethical activities).	16 1			2	4	10	1	
5	26	Publicly challenge powerful others to act on espoused values.	17			1	8	8		

Table 4.10: Integrity – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.12 Driving for Results

The competency of driving for results was not deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Target levels (see Table 4.11) were not met ($\bar{x}$ = 4.53 and s= 0.639) in terms of analyzing goals for business outcomes, and setting specific performance goals that clearly stretch the leader, the team and the organization beyond the current norms and that require significant change to be reached. The tireless surge towards setting and then meeting challenging objectives is essential for effective leadership (Gilbert, 2005; Goffee and Jones, 2006;) and where leaders focuses on 'now' as opposed to weighing up longer term outcomes, this can result in a barrier to effective leadership (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1990; Fullan, 2001;)

The RFU as an organization needs to examine whether or not it sets appropriate targets in the quest for improved results, and whether it focuses on the past rather than the future. The Hay Group (2002) allude to the notion of the leader setting performance targets which include 'stretch' targets, which are targets with only a 50/50 chance of being achieved in the quest to improve the competency of driving for results.

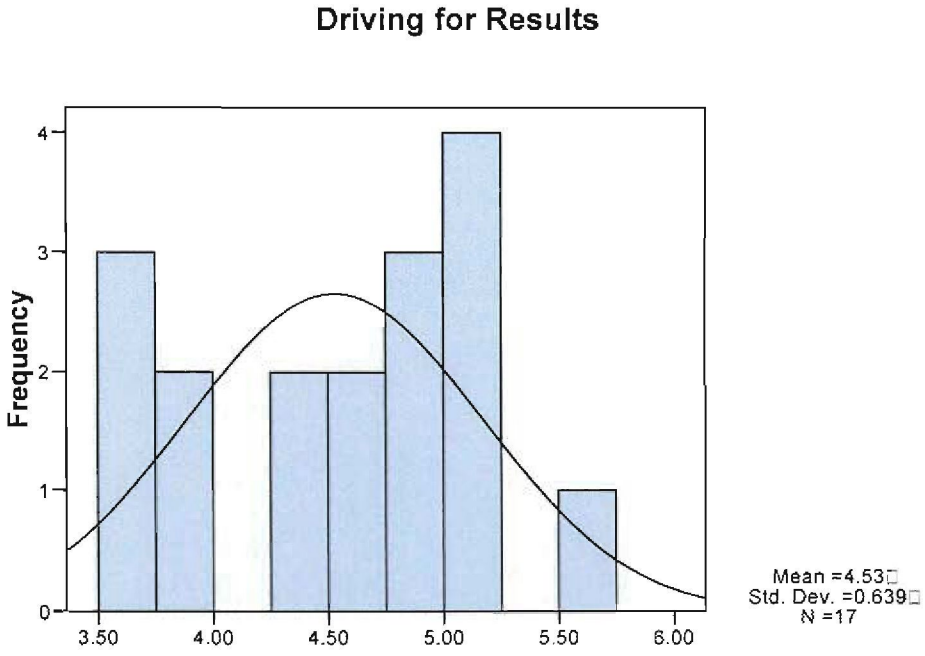


Figure 4.15: Driving for Results

Level	Item #	Driving for Results		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	14	Work hard to do the job well or right.	5 12					5	11	1
2	38	Set own standards and use them to judge performance.	13 4				4	9	4	
	48	Express dissatisfaction with the status quo and seek ways to improve performance.	15 2				6	9	2	
	57	Make specific changes in work methods, processes or systems to improve performance.	15 2				6	9	2	
4	5	Push him/herself and others to set tough performance targets even where there's a measure of risk involved.	15 2			2	5	8	2	
4	49	Go beyond standard goals to set stretch or challenging performance goals.	15 2			1	3	11	2	
5	60	Analyse goals for business outcomes (i.e., make explicit considerations of potential return-on-investment for business related goals).	1 16		1	3	10	3		
5	65	Set specific performance goals that clearly stretch him/herself, the team, and the organisation beyond the current norms and that require significant change to be reached.	16 1			1	4	11	1	
6	85	Take repeated sustained actions over time in the face of obstacles to reach an entrepreneurial goal.	17			2	8	7		

Table 4.11: Driving for Results – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.13 Flexibility

The competency of flexibility was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. Target levels (see Table 4.12) were achieved ($\bar{x}$ = 3.18 and s= 0.422) in relation to making decisions and taking actions to fit the situation or person faced and in terms of balancing the need to follow standard rules or procedures in the quest to be effective or achieve results. Thirteen of the participants fully met this target level. Leaders exhibiting the positive features of this competency effectively get the fine balance between following set procedures and the need to be effective or achieve results (Fink, 2003; Parsons and Pasquale, 2007). Researchers (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002c; Bower and Gilbert, 2007) view that the ability of a leader to adapt to the needs of a situation and change the tactics constitutes real competence with this characteristic.

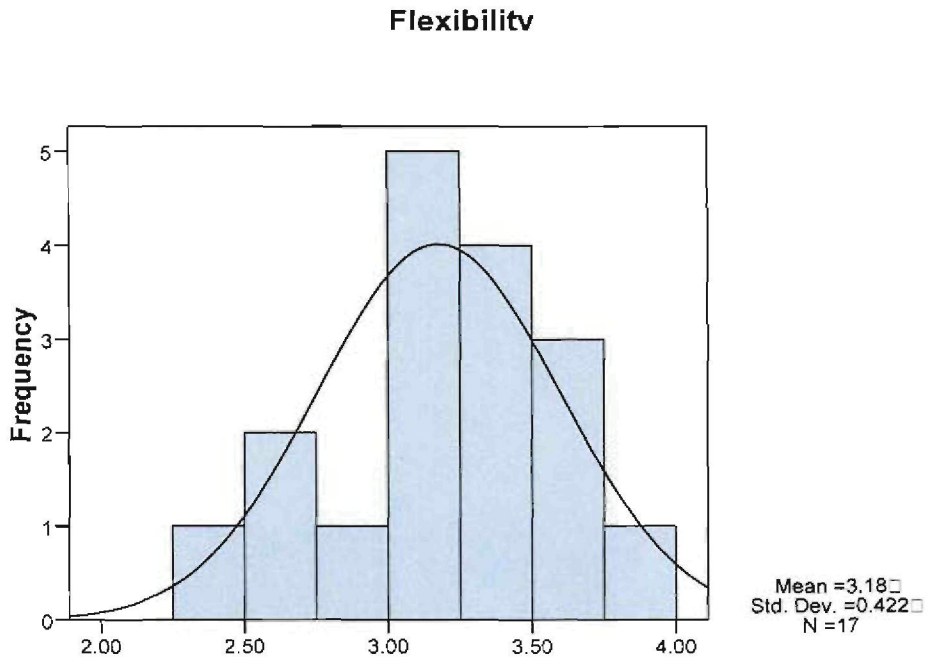


Figure 4.16: Flexibility

Level	Item #	Flexibility		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	32	Willingly change ideas or perceptions based on new information or contrary evidence.	17			2	5	10		
2	18	Apply standard procedures flexibly (e.g., alter normal procedures to fit a specific situation to get a job done or meet an important goal).	15 2			2	4	9	2	
3	11	Make decisions and take actions to fit the situation or person faced.	12 5			1	1	10	5	
3	19	Balance the need to follow standard rules or procedures with the need to be effective or achieve results.	16 1			1	5	10	1	
4	70	Adapt business strategy (e.g., change the plan, goals or project) to fit the situation, including making fundamental changes in strategy.	17			3	10	4		

Table 4.12: Flexibility – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.14 Self Confidence

The competency of self confidence as not deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. Target levels (see Table 4.13) for seeking out challenging assignments and responsibilities and the leader stating his/her own view clearly and confidently even when disagreeing with powerful others were not met ($\bar{x}$ = 4.03 and

s = 0.441). The capacity of a leader to exhibit a sound sense of self-worth and capabilities, especially in turbulent times, constitutes a statement in a leader's confidence to succeed against the odds (Boyatzis et al, 2002; Gilbert, 2003; Hughes et al, 2006). Self-confidence in an organisation is also demonstrated by an ability to challenge poor performances and bring about gradual change (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002c; Prewitt, 2003).

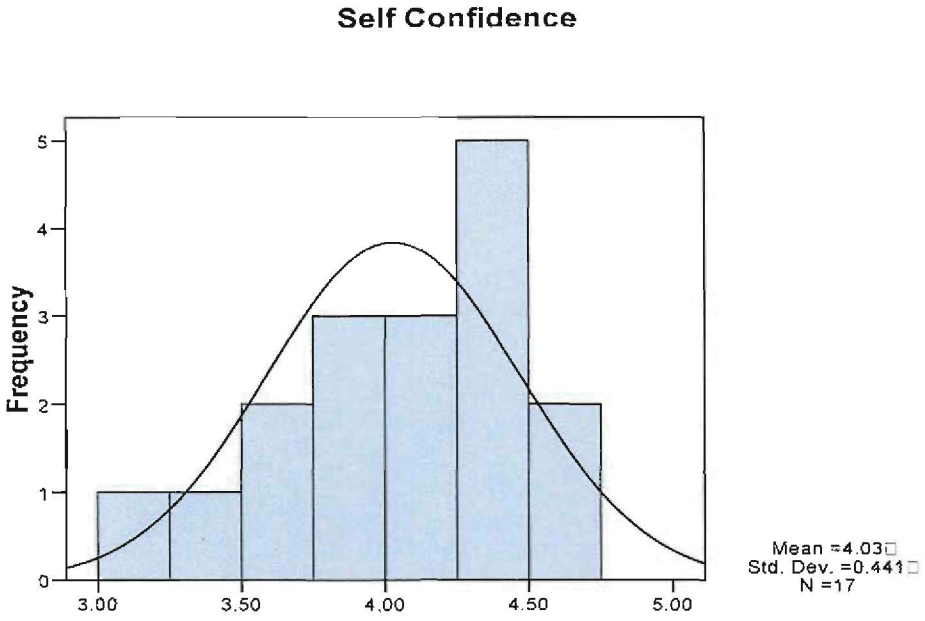


Figure 4.17: Self Confidence

Level	Item #	Self-Confidence		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	30	Appear confident in person.	7 10				4	3	10	
2	47	Act independently, even when others disagree.	17				6	11		
3	45	Express confidence in his/her abilities.	13 4				4	9	4	
3	10	Seek out challenging assignments and responsibilities.	14 3			2	2	10	3	
4	16	State his/her own view clearly and confidently even when disagreeing with powerful others.	13 4				2	11	4	
5	67	Willingly take on extreme (e.g., potentially career threatening) challenges.	17			6	8	3		
5	79	Believe strongly in his/her ability to accomplish even the most difficult and challenging tasks.	12 5			1		11	5	

Table 4.13: Self Confidence – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.15 Impact and Influence

The competency of impact and influence was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. The target level (see Table 4.14) was met ($\bar{x}$ = 4.49 and s= 0.498) in terms of making well thought out, dramatic statements or taking unusual symbolic actions which reinforce the leaders message in a powerful and meaningful way. Thirteen of the participants fully met this target level. The ability to devise, refine and develop well thought out, long term strategies which are designed to shape or guide over a sustained period of time is a form of effective leadership (Quinn, 2005; Ancona et al, 2007). The Hay Acquisition Company (2002c) believes that the competence of impact and influence is best demonstrated by an approaching of persuasion process in stages that lead to positive outcomes i.e. producing positive outcomes by impressing and influencing others. It is suggested that the competency of impact and influence is a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization because it takes time in preparing reports, data and other facts and seeks to anticipate the probable reactions of others. As an organization it appears comfortable to test its' proposed strategies and approaches with others.

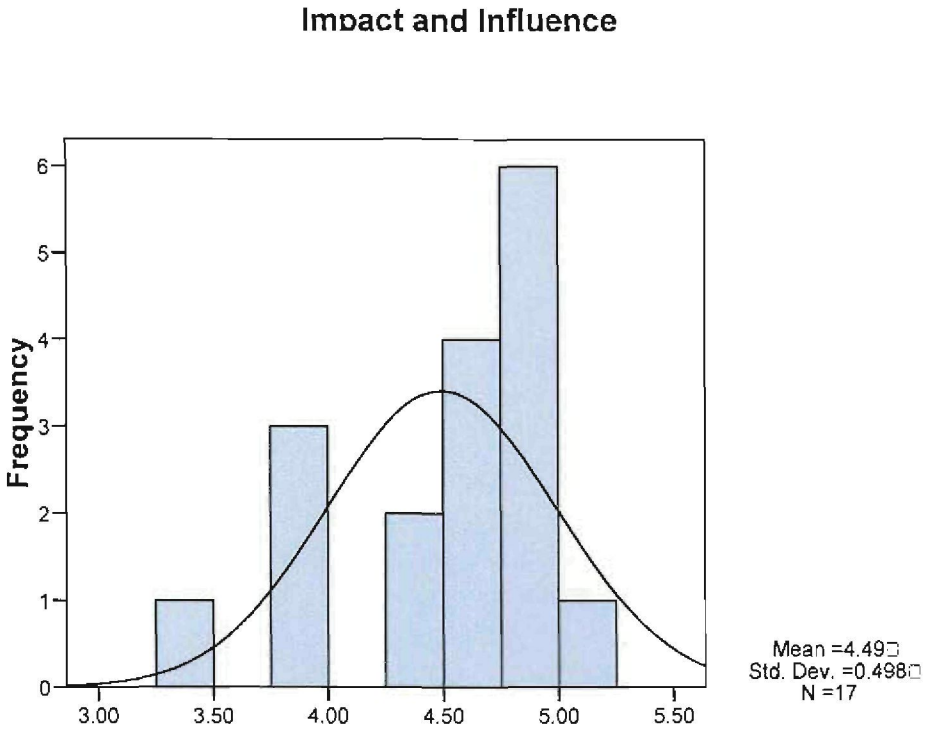


Figure 4.18: Impact and Influence

Level	Item #	Impact and Influence		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	75	Put forward own ideas assertively and directly ask others for their commitment or support.	17				5	12		
2	72	Make repeated attempts to support his/her own point of view.	17				8	9		
3	69	Adapt his/her style of persuasion to fit the differing characteristics, needs and preferences of various target audiences.	16 1				9	7	1	
4	6	Make well thought out, dramatic statements or take unusual symbolic actions which reinforce his/her message in a powerful and memorable way	1 15 1		1	1	7	7	1	
5	52	Increase the persuasive impact on an audience by developing broad, behind-the-scenes support from others, who champion his/her cause as their own.	17			2	5	10		
	29	Approach the persuasion process in stages and sequence a variety of influence methods and approaches that complement each other (e.g., direct persuasion, third-party experts, successful pilot demonstrations and ideas, etc.).	15 2			1	3	11	2	
	94	Develop well thought out, long term strategies tailored to persuade or influence over time.	14 3			2	4	8	3	

Table 4.14: Impact and Influence.

4.3.2.16 Teamwork and Cooperation

The competency of teamwork and cooperation was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organization. Target levels (see Table 4.15) were met ($\bar{x}$ = 4.19 and s= 0.439) in terms of being willing to learn from others and actively working to increase cooperation among team members. All seventeen participants fully met this target level. A raft of research (Northouse, 1997; Hay Acquisition Company, 2002c; Hughes et al, 2006) emphasises the need to work with others in the quest to achieve shared goals, and researchers such as Daft, 1999; Fulham, 2001; Fink, 2003 recognise that effective leaders must surrender some of their control and power in the quest to promote a culture to teamwork and co-operation that facilitates a team to function effectively. Hughes et al (2006) put the view that a leader building a new team must clarify the team's purpose and goals, set standards of performance and ensure that individual team member goals are in sympathy with the team goals.

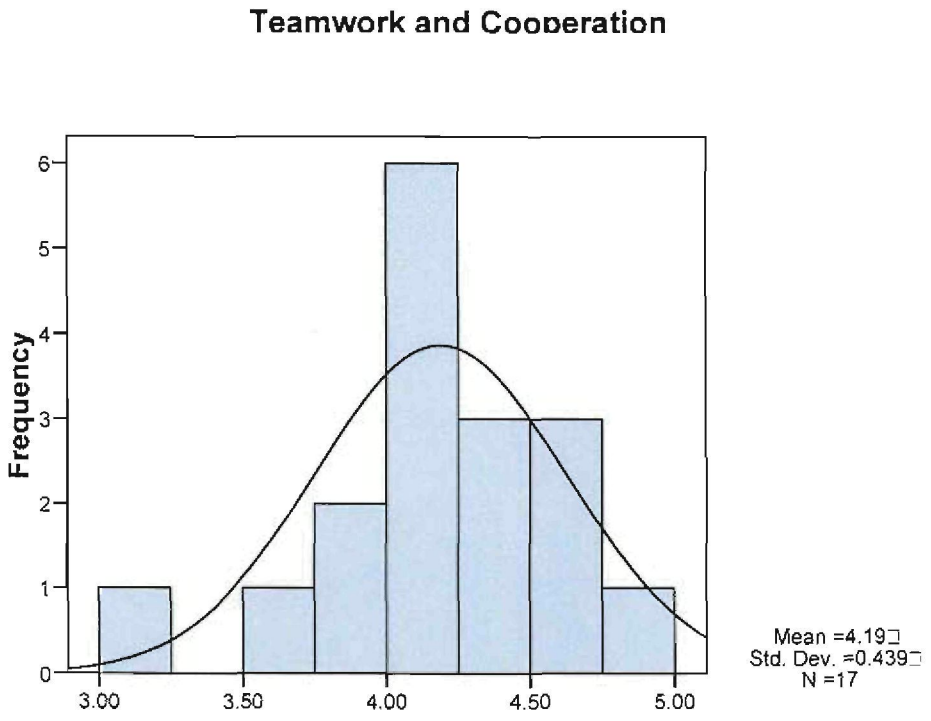


Figure 4.19: Teamwork and Cooperation

Level	Item #	Teamwork and Cooperation		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	82	Willing participate in team actions, decisions.	11 6				4	7	6	
2	64	Encourage team members to succeed together as opposed to succeeding as individuals.	13 4				3	10	4	
2	84	Encourage and respect others' expertise and contribution to the team.	13 4				2	11	4	
3	13	Be willing to learn from others (including colleagues and employees).	12 5				3	9	5	
3	17	Actively work to increase cooperation among team members.	12 5				2	10	5	
4	15	Publicly credit others who have performed well.	13 4				2	11	4	
4	53	Strategically share resources with other teams where appropriate.	16 1			1	3	12	1	
3	8	Bring issues that are obstructing team effectiveness to the surface and contribute to their resolution.	14 3			1	5	8	3	

Table 4.15: Teamwork and Cooperation – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.17 Relationship Building

The competency of relationship building was deemed to be a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisaton. Target levels (see Table 4.16) were met ($\bar{x}$ = 3.51 and s= 0.309) for using personal/professional networks to seek information of strategic importance, building relationships with sources of influence and continuously broadening and actively maintaining a wide network of relationships that could be called on for current and future use. Sixteen of the participants fully met this target level. The Hay Acquisition Company (2002c) recognizes the need for leaders to target, establish and sustain a network of relationships in the quest to maintain sources of influence across both industry and political divides. This is reinforced by Ancona et al (2007) who believe that an effective leader should spend time trying to understand the perspectives of others, whilst trying to anticipate how others will react to them.

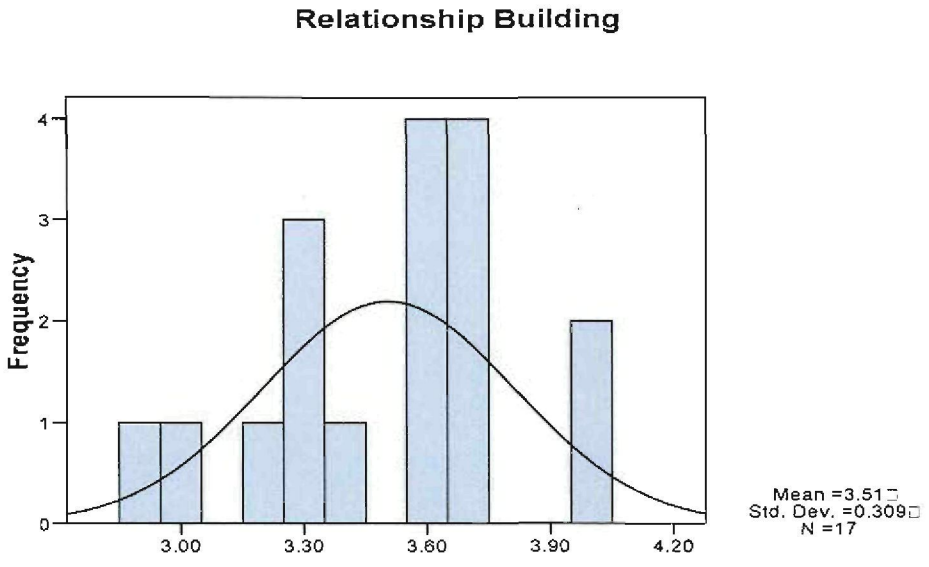


Figure 4.20: Relationship Building

Level	Item #	Relationship Building		Category Distribution						
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	62	Use existing internal and external relationships to seek specific information or gain access to an individual.	16 1				4	12	1	
2	3	Identify and capitalise on opportunities (conferences, meetings, social etc.) to meet new people and develop new contacts.	11 6				3	8	6	
	27	Develop new relationships for a specific business purpose.	14 3			1	3	10	3	
	37	Use personal/professional networks to seek information of strategic importance and build relationships with sources of influence.	14 3				1	13	3	
	87	Continuously broaden and actively maintain a wide network of relationships that can be called on for current and future utility.	14 3				1	13	3	
	31	Target, establish and maintain a network of relationships with key sources of influence across industry, political and geographical boundaries.	13 4				2	11	4	
	88	Actively use personal/professional networks to promote the organisation strategically in the industry and market.	15 2				3	12	2	

Table 4.16: Relationship Building – category distribution by item.

4.3.2.18 Case Study of Two RRDM's: Competency Portfolios

The portfolio report for the first RRDM is illustrated overleaf. The rationale for choosing two participants for the case study is based on the decision to compare a participant with a similar portfolio of competency strengths to the RFU to one with a dissimilar portfolio, as there is no significant advantages to the study of considering the individual profiles of all RRDM's. Each RRDM would be dealt with as an individual in terms of future training needs.

In terms of the first RRDM, the similarity to the competency portfolio workforce audit for the RFU (Figure 4.2) is identical i.e. of the fourteen competencies assessed, the same eight are deemed to be a strength and the same six are deemed to be a weakness.



Figure 4.21: Case Study 1 – Competency Portfolio.

The portfolio report for the second RRDM is illustrated overleaf. Any false sense of security the individual RRDM training needs may be similar to the RFU as an organisation are dispelled in that the subject exhibits just two competency strengths i.e. those of organizational savvy and teamwork and co-operation.

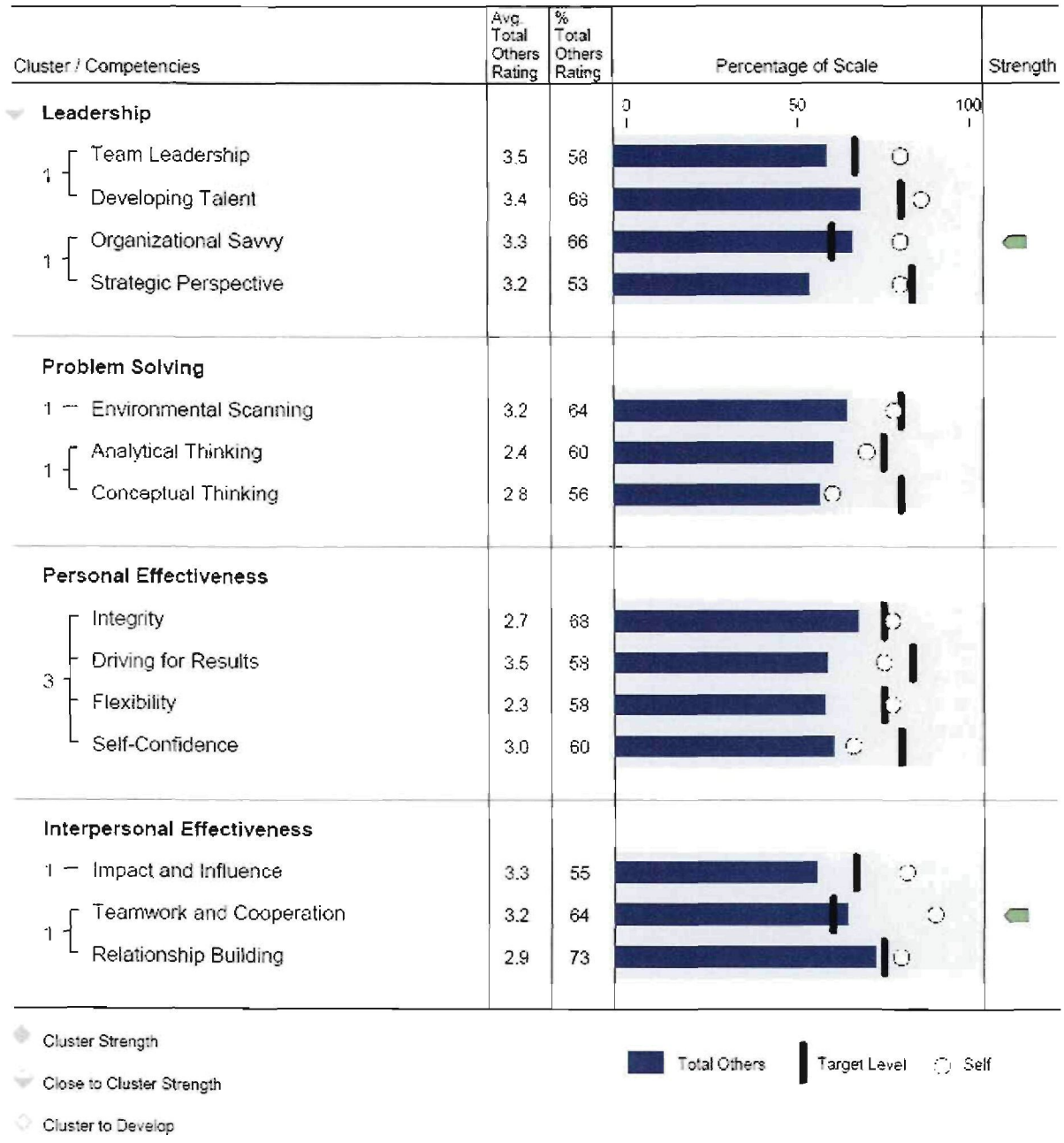


Figure 4.22 : Case Study 2 – Competency Portfolio.

4.3.2.19 Summary

There are clearly varying professional development training needs for those RRDM's who are lacking competence in their respective portfolios. In any quest for effective leadership competencies need to be developed, not least with key researchers such as Kouzes and Posner (1987) suggesting that such competencies are essential for leaders to be effective. This is endorsed further by a qualitative research review by Judge et al (2002) who draw reference to the views of key researchers in the field (Kilpatrick & Locke, 1991; Northouse, 1997; Yukl, 1998).

4.3.3 Organisational Climate Survey (OCS) (Hay Group, 2000)

4.3.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for Organisational Climate Survey (RDO perceptions)

The statistics in Table 4.17 indicate that participants felt quite clear about what their ideal climate was (up in the high end of the percentiles), although there was much more variability around what the actual climate was perceived. Rewards (actual) illustrated the greatest range of scores, indicating that personnel in the organisation experience differing degrees of rewards. Actual scores for rewards achieved $\bar{x}$ = 71.6 and s= 23.7, which suggests that for most participants the scores will be between 95.3 down to 47.9.

Adding or subtracting one standard deviation from the mean will indicate where 68.26 % of the population's scores will fall. Doubling the standard deviation and adding or subtracting it from mean will illustrate where 95.44 % of the subjects scores will fall.

It appears that those contributing to the climate scores have different experiences of the climate (actual), but are all quite clear that they want it to be 'good' (ideal). This is because the scores for ideal are more tightly clustered around the mean (i.e. for ideal highest $\bar{x}$ = 98.2 closely followed by $\bar{x}$ = 98.0; 96.1; 95.9; 94.7; 89.6), whereas they are more spread out for actual (i.e. actual highest $\bar{x}$ = 82.9, as opposed to lowest $\bar{x}$ = 70.3).

As a contrast in comparing the spreads of ideal and actual, the climate dimension of team commitment is an example. The scores for team commitment (ideal) ranged between 99.1 and 96.9 for 68.26% of the population i.e. the scores are much more closely clustered around the mean for this climate dimension. A comparison with the range (difference between the top and bottom scores) for this dimension is only 4.2 percentiles. The most significant standard deviation (measures of dispersion) was with flexibility (actual) which had a range of 68 percentiles which is a much bigger spread of scores.

As far as the dimensions that show the greatest amount of variance, (i.e. the dimension scores for actual in this case), the order of highest to lowest is flexibility, rewards, standards, clarity, team commitment, and responsibility. As a result it is seen that the

most of the variance is associated with flexibility, (scores are most different from each other), and the least in relation to responsibility.

In terms of our ideal scores, the greatest variance is standards, followed by flexibility, responsibility, clarity, rewards and team commitment i.e. in terms of ideal climate, scores with the greatest variance (amount of difference between scores) were in relation to standards, suggesting that subjects are not as closely in agreement about what the standards should be.

Entire Organisation	n	x̄	s	v	r
Flexibility (Actual)	54	71.7	24.5	598.5	68
Flexibility (Ideal)	54	96.1	5.6	31.2	18.5
Responsibility (Actual)	54	81.0	17.3	300.3	57.2
Responsibility (Ideal)	54	94.7	4.8	22.7	16.5
Standards (Actual)	54	70.3	22.8	521.3	75.9
Standards (Ideal)	54	89.6	13.1	171.7	50.1
Rewards (Actual)	54	71.6	23.7	559.8	87.4
Rewards (Ideal)	54	98.2	1.5	2.4	5.5
Clarity (Actual)	54	76.5	20.4	418.1	63
Clarity (Ideal)	54	95.9	3.8	14.3	12
Team Commitment (Actual)	54	82.9	18.7	348.3	53.1
Team Commitment (Ideal)	54	98.0	1.1	1.2	4.2

Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics of Organisational Climate Survey for RFU (RDO perceptions).

4.3.3.2 The Composite Perceptions of RDO's for the OCS

Fifty four responses were analysed (see Figure 4.2.3 and descriptive statistics in Table 4.17) in relation to how RDO's perceived the organizational climate (created by RRDM's) in which they worked. Four RDO's did not supply rater data. The organizational climate dimensions of flexibility and rewards were revealed as below the RDO expectations of what they should be.

4.3.3.3 Flexibility

The organisational climate dimension of flexibility as created by the RRDM's (see Table 4.1.7) was deemed to be a negative feature according to the perceptions of the raters (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 96.1 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 71.7). A positive organisational climate in terms of flexibility demands that there are no unnecessary rules, procedures or policies, and the new ideas are readily accepted (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b; Smith, 2003). In the context of this style, flexibility alludes to the perceived constraints RDO's experience, and it is clear from the findings that the RDO's fight against unnecessary rules, procedures and constraints which various research suggest drives an organizational climate downwards (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1990).

4.3.3.4 Rewards

The organisational climate dimension of rewards as created by the RRDM's (see Table 4.17) was deemed to be a negative feature according to the perceptions of the raters (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 98.2 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 71.6). A positive organsiational climate in terms of rewards demands that employees feel that they are recognized, and indeed rewarded for good performance. A similar case study by Gilbert (2005) recognized that an organisational climate lacking a positive rewards dimension can be driven downwards. This is reinforced by Smith (2003).

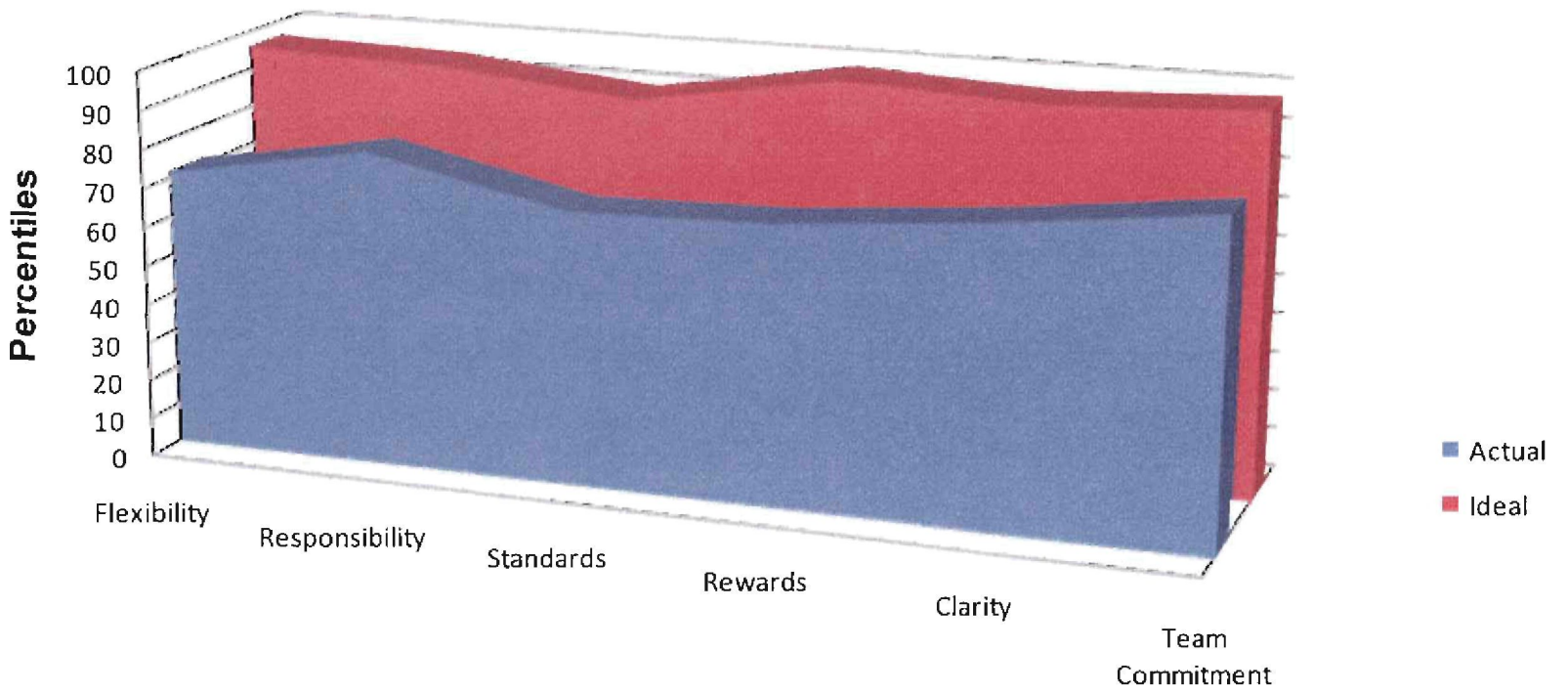


Figure 4.23: Organistional Climate Survey for RFU (RDO perceptions - n=54)

4.3.3.5 Descriptive Statistics for Organisational Climate Survey (RRDM perceptions)

The statistics (Table 4.18) indicate that participants felt quite clear about what their ideal climate was (up in the high end of the percentiles), although there was much more variability around what the actual climate was perceived. Responsibility (actual) illustrated the greatest range of scores, indicating that personnel in the organisation experience differing degrees of responsibility. Actual scores for responsibility achieved $\bar{x}$ = 57.24 and s = 25.61, which suggests that for most participants the scores will be between 82.86 down to 31.64.

It appears that those contributing to the climate scores have different experiences of the climate (actual), but are all quite clear that they want it to be 'good' (Ideal). This is because the scores for ideal are more tightly clustered around the mean (i.e. for ideal highest $\bar{x}$ = 91.17 closely followed by = 87.99; 87.52; 86.38; 85.68; 84.12), whereas they are more spread out for actual (i.e. actual highest $\bar{x}$ = 63.4 as opposed to lowest $\bar{x}$ = 48.05).

The range of scores for the ideal items was much less than for the actual items. Flexibility (actual) exhibits r = 87 as opposed to flexibility ideal where r = 48.5. Clarity (actual) exhibits r = 71.1 as opposed to clarity (ideal) where r = 37.3.

As far as the dimensions that show the greatest amount of variance, (i.e. the dimension scores for actual in this case), the order of highest to lowest is flexibility, responsibility, standards, clarity, team commitment and rewards. As a result it is seen that the most of the variance in is associated with flexibility, (scores are most different from each other), and the least in relation to rewards.

A visual representation of actual vs ideal scores is illustrated in Figure 4.24.

Entire Organisation (Participant Data)	N	$\bar{x}$	s	v	r
Flexibility (Actual)	18	62.37	26.29	690.92	87
Flexibility (Ideal)	18	87.99	12.80	163.72	48.5
Responsibility (Actual)	18	57.24	25.61	655.83	92.1
Responsibility (Ideal)	18	84.12	17.15	294.07	64
Standards (Actual)	18	63.40	25.57	653.91	75.8
Standards (Ideal)	18	86.38	19.96	398.58	61.9
Rewards (Actual)	18	48.05	20.28	411.41	83.4
Rewards (Ideal)	18	85.68	16.49	271.97	49.8
Clarity (Actual)	18	60.52	24.17	584.21	71.1
Clarity (Ideal)	18	87.52	12.45	155.03	37.3
Team Commitment (Actual)	18	60.60	22.13	489.81	76.3
Team Commitment (Ideal)	18	91.17	10.51	110.41	40.7

Table 4.18: Descriptive Statistics of Organisational Climate Survey for RFU (RRDM perceptions).

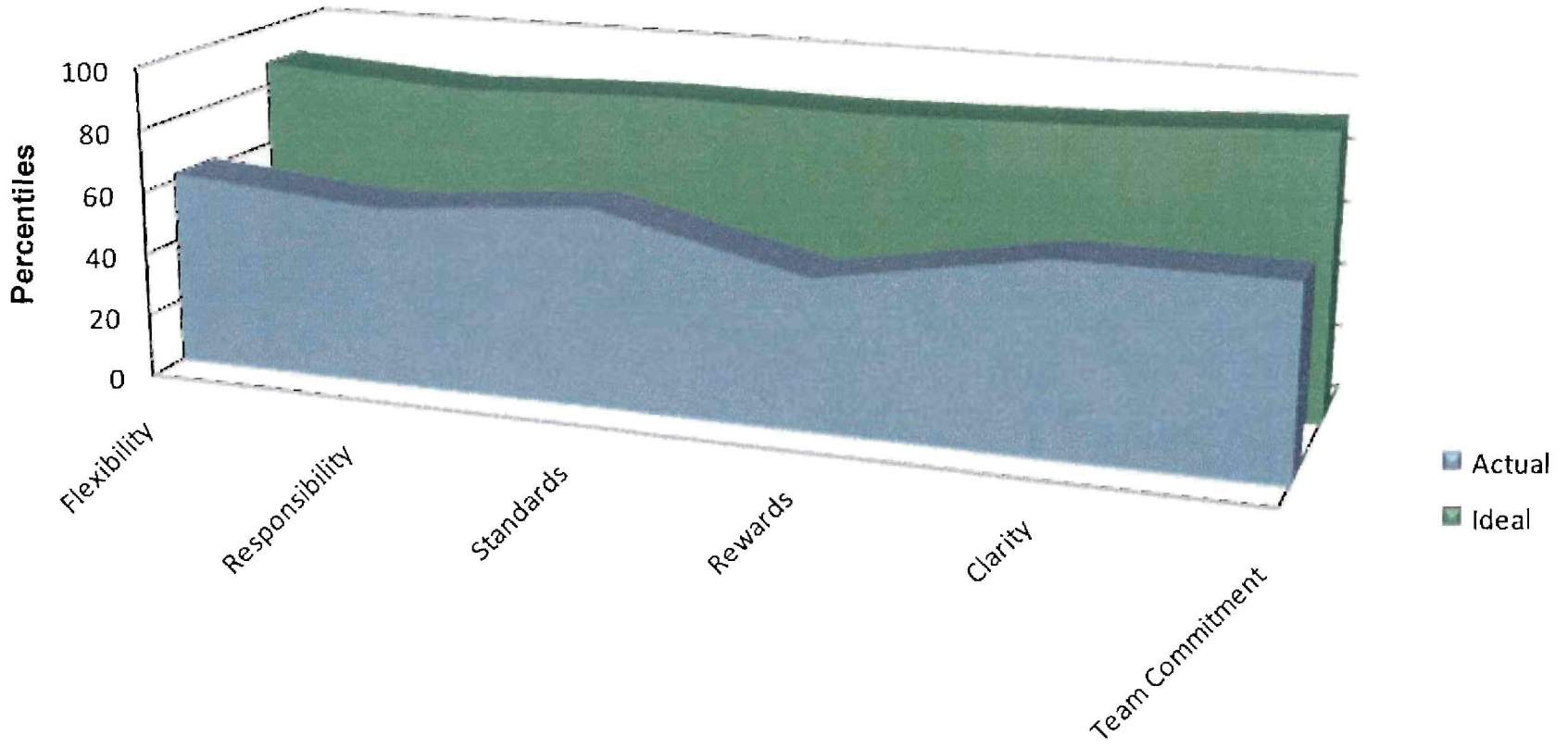


Figure 4.24: Organisational Survey for RFU (RRDM perceptions-n=18)

4.3.3.6 The Composite Perceptions of Key RFU Personnel (RRDM's) for the OCS.

Nineteen RRDM's (or same tier of management) personnel within the RFU were surveyed using the 96 item multi-rater Organisational Climate Survey as to their perceptions about the RFU as an organisation (see descriptive statistics in Table 4.18). One of the personnel did not supply any data. In all of the six dimensions, the RFU did not promote a climate that reached their expectations of the RRDM's.

4.3.3.7 Flexibility

The organizational climate dimension of flexibility as perceived by the RRDM's was deemed to be a negative feature. There was a gap of 25.62 percentile points between the actual and ideal levels (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 87.99 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 62.37). The RRDM's clearly feel that the RFU as an organization suppress their intentions by implementing unnecessary rules and procedures in a culture where they have to operate under unreasonable constraints (Smith, 2003;). This fits with research by Spreier et al (2006) who believe that in high performance organizational climates, the dimension of flexibility is high.

4.3.3.8 Responsibility

The organisational climate dimension of responsibility as perceived by the RRDM's was deemed to be a negative feature. There was a gap of 26.88 percentile points between the actual and ideal levels (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 84.12 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 57.24). Clearly RRDM's generally perceive that they are not given the autonomy to accomplish tasks without having to check for approval (Hay McBer, 1998), whilst Spreier et al (2006) recognize that inappropriate employment of the directive and pacesetting leadership styles can limit responsibility within an organization.

4.3.3.9 Standards

The organizational climate dimension of standards as perceived by he RRDM's was deemed to be a negative feature. There was a gap of 22.98 percentile points between the actual and ideal levels (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 86.38 vs. actual $\bar{x}$ = 63.40). Research by the Hay McBer (1998) recognizes that challenging but attainable goals need to be set, but a comparison with findings by Szilagyi and Wallace (1990) reveal that this is not the case.

4.3.3.10 Rewards

The organisational climate dimension of rewards as perceived by the RRDM's was deemed to be a negative feature. There was a gap of 37.63 percentile points (see Table 4.18) between the actual and ideal levels (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 85.68 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 48.05). The RRDM's appear to perceive that their efforts are not recognised and/or rewarded for effective performance (Hughes et al, 2006) and in comparison with Erickson and Gratton (2007) recognition is not differentially related to varying degrees of performance.

4.3.2.11 Clarity

The organisational climate dimension of clarity as perceived by the RRDM's was deemed to be a negative feature. There was a gap of 27 percentile points (Table 4.18) between the actual and ideal levels (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 87.52 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 60.52). Personal expectations of RRDM's are not being conveyed to them as suggested they should be (Murphy, 1990). The dimension of clarity in relation to organizational climate is highlighted by Gilbert (2005) as essential in promoting effective leadership.

4.3.3.12 Team Commitment

The organisational climate of team commitment as perceived by the RRDM's was deemed to be a negative feature. There was a gap of 30.57 percentile points (see Table 4.18) between the actual and ideal levels (ideal $\bar{x}$ = 91.17 vs actual $\bar{x}$ = 60.60). The RRDM's clearly fail to illustrate a sense of belonging to the RFU, and the need for such a collective membership of a team is highlighted by Hughes et al (2006) as essential for contributing to a positive organizational climate. Daft (1999) and Pierce and Newstrom (2006) support this view still further.

4.3.3.13 Case Study RRDM: Participant Version vs Employee Version

The participant (RRDM) perceived that it promoted an organizational climate that was negative in relation to the dimensions of standards (gap of 49.5 percentile points between ideal and actual levels), clarity (gap of 41.8 percentile points between ideal and actual levels) and team commitment (gap of 24.3 percentile points between ideal and

actual levels) (see figure 4.25). This is immediately compared to the findings of Spreier et al (2006) who would suggest a negative organisational climate is promoted by the

RRDM. Nevertheless, the four raters of the RRDM actually perceived that there were no negative climate in relation to any of the six dimensions, with minimal gaps between the ideal climate dimensions and the actual climate dimensions. It must therefore be concluded that the RRDM subject example promotes a positive organizational climate in all aspects.

It is interesting to compare the competency portfolio for this subject as identified in Figure 4.21. Self confidence is not deemed a competency strength, and it is possible that the subject's less than sound sense of self worth and capability reflected in his perceptions in relation to the organisational climate survey.

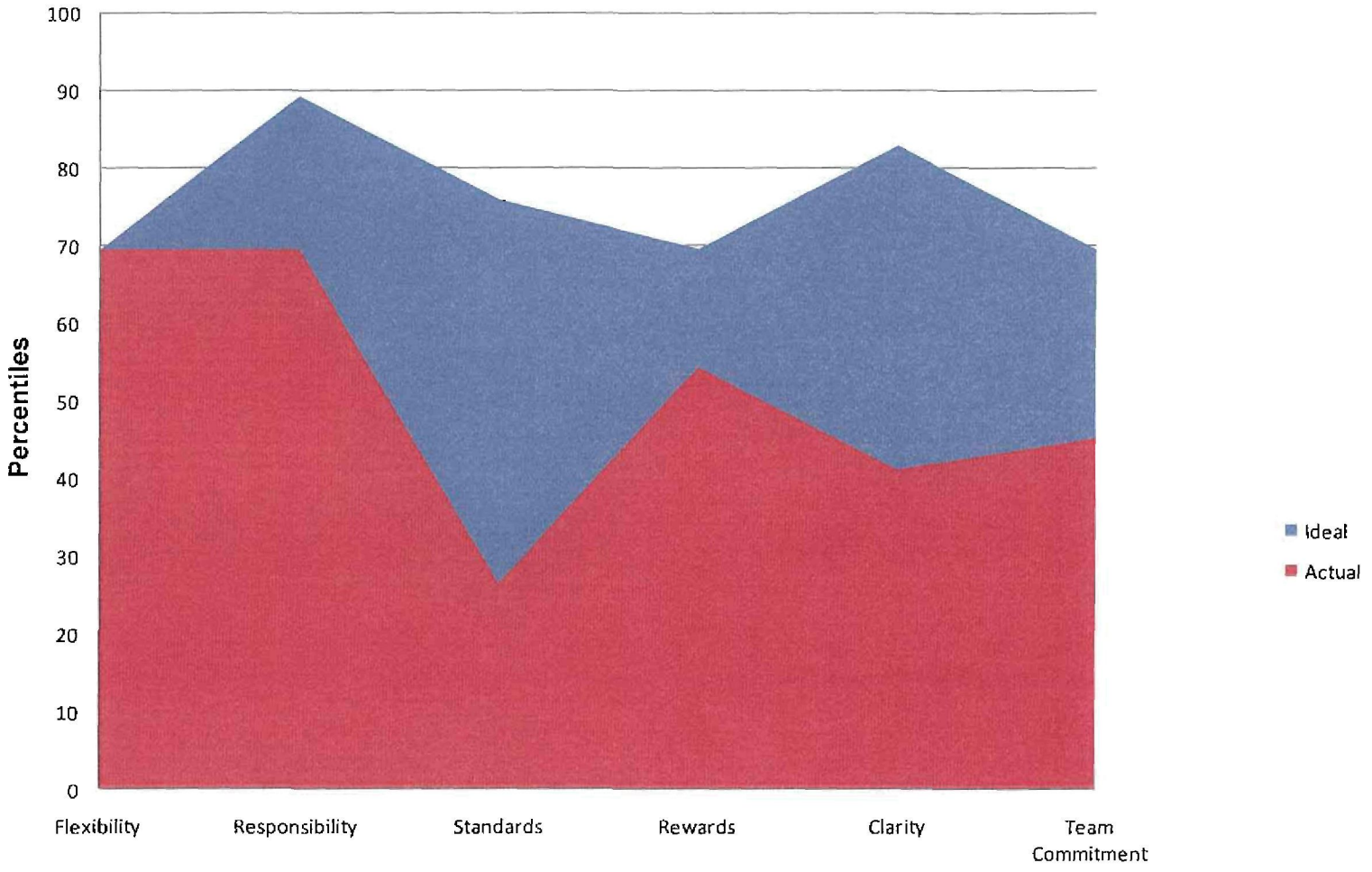


Figure 4.25: Organisational Climate Survey for Case Study RRDM (Participant Version)

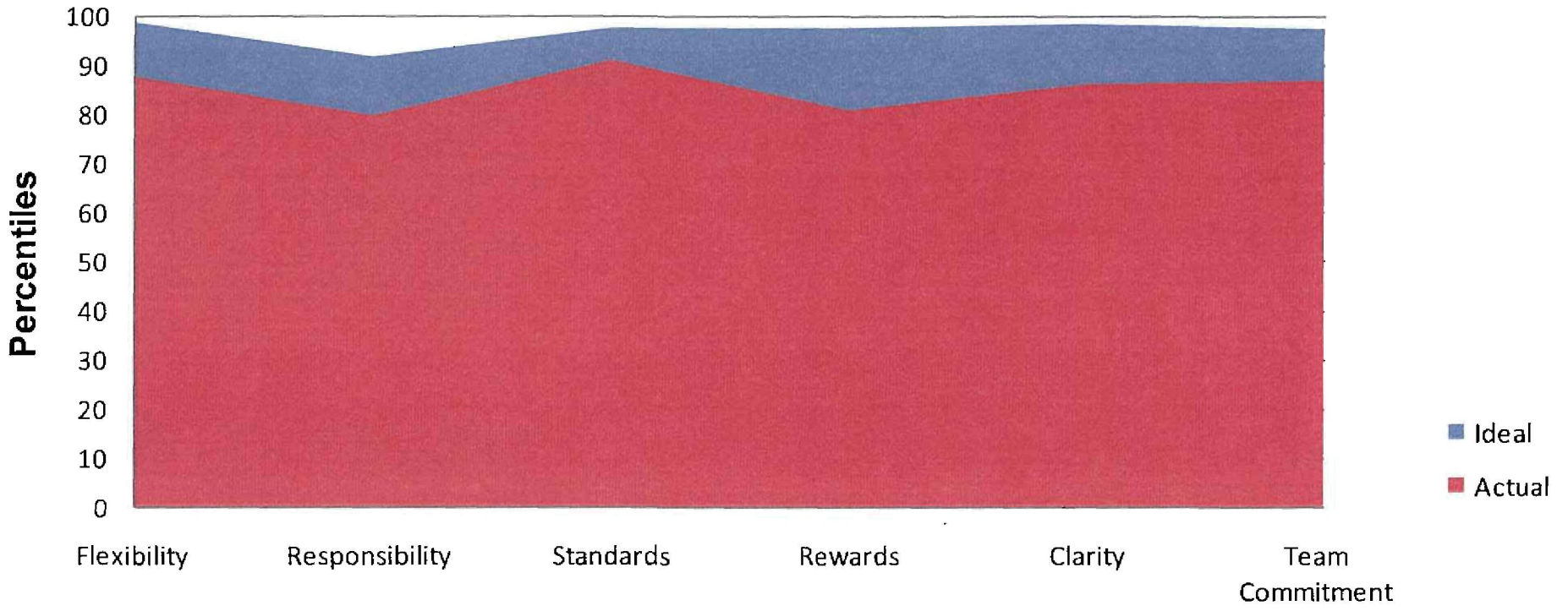


Figure 4.26: Organisational Climate Survey for Case Study RRDM (Rater Version)

4.4 Summary

From the perspective of the key focus group of this study, the RRDM's, the organisational culture at the RFU is lacking in all six dimensions in that there is an unacceptable gap between the ideal and the actual climate that exists. Spreier et al (2006) suggest from their studies that a climate with high level of standards, clarity, and team commitment and at most one gap in the other dimensions is very strong. A climate with no significant gaps in standards, clarity, or team commitment and two gaps in the other factors is still energizing to employees. If there are more gaps, then the climate is neutral or demotivating. In an environment of this nature, people tend to do only the minimum required, and performance suffers. To this end, the organisational climate at the organization employing the key focus group of this study is at best neutral, implying action is required (see Chapter 5).

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aims of this study were to determine the effect of leadership styles competency frameworks on the leadership effectiveness of RRDM's (with particular reference to school rugby), and to investigate the impact of organisational climate on the role of the RRDM and those who they lead. To achieve this aim, key personnel at the RFU were analysed as to their leadership styles employed, their range of competencies (measurable characteristics of a person that are related to effective performance) exhibited, and the organisational climate that they created.

Firstly in this chapter, a summary of the literature incorporating a summary of all the main findings will be reported and discussed further. This will be undertaken both from the perspective of the RFU as an organisation and from the perspective of key personnel within it. For example, the leadership styles employed by both the RFU as an organisation and key personnel within it will be reported and discussed. A range of competencies (measurable characteristics of a person that are related to effective performance) will be reported and discussed from both the perspective of the RFU as an organisation and key personnel within it. The organisational climate that the RFU creates will be reported and discussed in relation to itself and key personnel employed by the organisation.

Secondly, and based on the findings and the aims of the study, it will be attempt to formulate a leadership development programme incorporating a Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF) that would impact positively on the leadership effectiveness of the RRDM (with particular reference to school rugby), whilst suggesting the ideal organisational climate needed to be created in order to best promote the core values of the RFU as an organisation

Finally, the chapter will conclude with suggestions on criteria for further research and follow up studies, as well as possible shortcomings of the study.

5.2 FINDINGS

5.2.1 Findings based on the literature study

From the literature it is evident that the findings borne from a raft of research (Smith, 1991; Daft, 1999; Higgs, 2002) acknowledge that merely defining leadership remains a complex and elusive problem, not least because the nature of leadership is so complex and problems arising from the fact that different authors use different terms for the same or similar concept(s). Some literature (Meindl et al, 1985; Hughes et al, 2006) has even suggested that leadership imply nothing more than a romantic myth, perhaps based on the false hope the someone will emerge to solve any problems by force. Goffee and Jones (2005) estimated that in the year 1999 alone, over 2000 books/articles were published on the topic of leadership, and suggest that in spite of such a plethora of studies, little is still known about the defining characteristics of effective leadership. Similarly, Newman and Chaharbaghi (2000) believe that the sheer emotional response to the term leadership is so powerful that it restricts any rational discussion of the term. More recently, some literature (Kumari et al, 2005; Martin, 2007;) suggests that any definition relating to leadership needs to be sound both in theory and practice, and able to accommodate changing terms and circumstances whilst being comprehensive and integrative. Avery (2004) views that seeking a single definition is naïve, mainly because leadership is not a concrete entity, but more a social construction occurring in a historical and cultural context, and actually within the minds of those involved. Indeed, Berry and Cartwright (2000) reveal that they view leadership as a process of seduction aimed to draw people in to a commitment to an organisation.

This study is founded on the hypothesis that effective leadership hinges on the concepts of leadership styles, personal competencies and organisational climate working symbiotically. In this context, leadership styles are deemed to impact on staff performance by creating an environment in which staff work, which in turn influences their discretionary effort (Northouse, 1997; Hay McBer, 1998). There is no one 'best' style, and such styles refer to the patterns of behaviour a leader adopts to plan, organise, motivate, control and the extent to which the leader listens, sets goals and standards, develops action plans, directs others and gives feedback (Smith, 2000; Prewitt, 2003; Ready, 2004). Personal competencies were investigated from a position that a competency is deemed to be a measurable characteristic of a person that is related to effective performance in a specific job role (Pegg, 1989; Smith and Peterson,

1998; Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b). Such competencies are organised in clusters (see 3.5.4) and are treated from a position that not every one of them must be mastered to achieve leadership effectiveness (Szilagyi and Wallace, 1990; Stein and Book, 2000;). The rationale is that depending on the situation (as with leadership styles) there is a combination of competencies that will help most leaders achieve effectiveness (Kilpatrick and Locke, 1991; Gardner, 1997; Pierce and Newstrom, 2006;).

The phenomenon of organisational climate was investigated in the context of referring to an individual's perception(s) of those aspects of their environment that directly impacted on how well they could fulfil the demands of their role (McGregor, 1960; Hesselbein et al, 1996; Hooper and Potter, 1997; Yukl, 1998; Dunphy et al, 2003;). Research conducted by the Hay Group (1998) revealed that organisational climate directly impacted on the amount of discretionary effort and commitment employees actually made. Similar findings (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001; Hay Group, 2002;) reinforces the notion that competency and behavioural leadership concepts affect organisational climate.

5.2.2 Findings based on the empirical study

5.2.2.1 Leadership Styles

The findings related to each of the leadership styles described in Chapter 2 follow.

5.2.2.2 Coercive (Directive) style

It was found that the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as employing a directive leadership style as a less preferred style of leadership. Kumari et al (2005:185) reinforce the view that a reluctance to employ this style can promote a culture in which collaborators do not know precisely what is expected of them and when, and have no say in decision making processes. Conversely, ineffective employment of the style can lead to followers rejecting a reliance on negative, corrective feedback, and being demotivated by listening to the negative consequences of non-compliance. Further studies (Covey, 1990; Northouse, 1997; Daft, 1999; Fullan, 2001; Gilbert, 2005;) highlight that this style of leadership frequently involved threats, punishment and negative reward schedules, and can drive the organisational climate downwards. That said, Daft (1999) refers to coercive power as essential for leaders to implement decisions or to lead change. Indeed, coercive power is the negative side of legitimate and reward power.

In summary, whilst some RRDM's and similar positions were perceived as employing the directive style of leadership as a preferred option, the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as employing it as a less preferred leadership style.

5.2.2.3 Authoritative (Visionary) style

It was found that the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as employing the visionary style of leadership as a preferred style. This style is recognised by key researchers (Hesselbein et al, 1996; Owen, 2000; Parks, 2005; Hamm, 2006;) as essential in establishing new visions and clear directions, and a culture in which new employees rely on the leader for creative guidance. Further studies (Treacy and Wiersma, 1997; Curphy, 2004; Hughes et al, 2006;) purport to the way in which followers trust leaders who create a compelling vision, whilst promoting the view that the authoritative style of leadership facilitates organisations in making choices about what they should and should not do. Research (Owen, 2000; Brundrett et al, 2003; Kumari et al, 2005;) also suggests that leaders who articulate and move their organisations towards a future vision are widely admired.

In summary, the RFU as an organisation and most RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as employing the visionary style of leadership as a preferred style. Some RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as lacking a visionary leadership style.

5.2.2.4 Affiliative style

It was found that the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as employing the affiliative style of leadership as a preferred style. Research (Hogan and Hogan, 1996; Kouzes and Posner, 2002; Cooper, 2005; Hughes et al, 2006) recognises that leaders with strong affiliation values experience that being around and working with others is extremely motivating, and that the affiliative style of leadership is most effective working in sympathy with other styles, especially the authoritative, democratic and coaching styles. The affliliative style is effective in easing interpersonal conflict, and various studies (Avolio, 1999; Buckingham, 2005; Gilbert, 2005) illustrate the effectiveness of the style in promoting diverse groups of staff to work in harmony.

In summary, the RFU as an organisation and most RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as employing the affiliative style of leadership. Some RRDM or similar positions were perceived as lacking an affiliative leadership style as a preferred option.

5.2.2.5 Democratic style

It was found that the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as employing the democratic style of leadership as a preferred style. Various literature (Carless, 1998; Smith, 2003; Maccoby, 2004) suggests that effective employment of this style if dependant on employees competence whilst being in possession of key information in relation to the organisation. Further research (Rost, 1991; Sadler, 1997; Ofsted, 2003) stresses that a compelling vision forms the backbone to the employment of the democratic style.

In summary, the RFU as an organisation and most RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as employing the democratic style of leadership as a preferred style of leadership. Some RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as employing a democratic leadership style as a less preferred style.

5.2.2.6 Pacesetting style

It was found that the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as lacking a pacesetting leadership style as a preferred style. The pacesetting style of leadership is effective when staff are charged with the achievement of immediate results, and when they are already well-motivated, competent and in need of little guidance (Scarnat, 2001; Smith, 2003; Taffinder, 2006). When tasks are given to staff that are beyond their competence, problems arise (Stein and Book, 2000; Tirmizi, 2002; Prewitt, 2003).

In summary, whilst some RRDM's and similar positions were perceived as employing a pacesetting style of leadership as a preferred style, the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as lacking an effective pacesetting leadership style as a preferred style.

5.2.2.7 Coaching style

It was found that the RFU as an organisation and the majority of subjects analysed were perceived as employing the coaching style of leadership as a preferred style. The coaching style is seen by researchers (Peterson and Hicks, 1996) as an effective style in retaining high quality staff by supporting them in their professional development. The style can be ineffective when constant development feedback and balanced feedback for staff in relation to behaviour is lacking (Murray and Owen, 1991; Sadler, 1997; Thomas, 2001).

In summary, the RFU as an organisation and most RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as employing the coaching style of leadership as a preferred style. Some RRDM's or similar positions were perceived as lacking a coaching leadership style as a preferred style.

Findings related to the competency portfolio now follow.

5.2.2.8 Competency Portfolios

As seen in Chapter 2, a competency is deemed to be a measurable characteristic of a leader that is related to their effective performance in a given role i.e. in the context of this study, the RRDM. For the purposes of this study, the competences are organised in clusters (3.4.2.4) related to the RFU as an organisation and the RRDM (or similar) role.

5.2.2.9 Leadership

It was found that within this cluster, the characteristic of team leadership was considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. Literature (Lord et al, 1986; Northouse, 1997; Hughes et al, 2006) suggests that the ability to create a compelling vision and to promote broader organisational effectiveness by linking efforts of multiple groups or teams is a priority, whilst the use of a variety of strategies to promote team morale and productivity are also important for the team leadership characteristic to flourish (Conger, 1999; Bono and Judge, 2003; Cooper, 2005).

It was found that the characteristic of developing talent within the leadership cluster was not considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. This characteristic

should promote a leader's effectiveness in developing the long term potential of those who work for them, by encouraging them to identify lessons learned and providing reassurance after setbacks (Trice and Beyer, 1986; Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Popper and Mayseless, 2003). Lack of competence in relation to this characteristic can detract from encouraging staff to develop their potential by simply failing to provide basic directions to facilitate learning and development (Church, 2000; Cranwell-Ward et al, 2002; Gerzon, 2006).

It was found that the characteristic organisational savvy was perceived as a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. The ability to act in the quest to anticipate and pre-empt events is crucial in a leadership context (Hesselbein et al, 1996; Treacy and Wiersma, 1997) and the RFU as an organisation illustrates real competence with exhibiting the ability to know what is and what is not possible at set times, whilst understanding it takes to address or resolve key issues in order to achieve a positive climate for those employed in its organisation.

Finally in this leadership cluster, it was found that the characteristics relating to strategic perspective were not considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. This characteristic reflects a leader's ability to see patterns and make links irrespective of the amount of detail to hand (Shamir et al, 1993; Strange and Mumford, 2002; Khurana, 2002). Lack of competence in relation to this characteristic can lead to limited future strategies being created and little reflection on patterns and connections that occur (Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Church, 2000; Cooper, 2005).

5.2.2.10 Problem Solving

This cluster of problem solving encompasses environmental scanning, and it was found that this competency was not considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. This characteristic should promote a leader's effectiveness in an ability to understand and make positive use of the relationship or social and cultural differences within an organisation, or indeed in organisations in the wider community. Indeed, various literature (Thayer, 1988; Hughes et al, 2006) suggests that the environmental scanning characteristics should promote a leader's effectiveness in identifying problems or opportunities for improvement, whilst also being able to analyse the causes and develop alternative solutions. Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Sarvio and Santora, 2003; and

Smith, 2006; believe that lack of competence in relation to the environmental scanning characteristics can detract from a leader's ability to understand ongoing issues and differing agendas within an organisation.

It was found that the characteristic of analytical thinking was considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. This characteristic should promote a leader's effectiveness in making complex plans or analyses, and the ability to engage in logical thought in pursuit of recognising cause and effect. That said, various research projects (Sternberg et al, 1995; Ferris et al, 2001; Hughes et al, 2006) recognise that an individual can do well in an analytical test, but not in life. Indeed, lack of competence in relation to the characteristic of analytical thinking can detract from a leader's ability to undertake the analyses of complex problems and to analyse variables (Sternberg, 1985; Kersting, 2003; Pierce and Newstrom, 2006). The final characteristic in this problem solving cluster is that of conceptual thinking. It was found that this was not perceived a strength in terms of the RFU as an organisation. This characteristic can reflect a leader's ability to clarify complex data, apply complex concepts and create new insights (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Ferris et al, 2001; Kersting, 2003). Lack of competence in relation to the characteristic can lead to the limited recognition of patterns and indeed a lack of the employment of basic rules (Pegg, 1989; Scarnat, 2001; Taffinder, 2006).

5.2.2.11 Personal Effectiveness

It was found that the characteristic of integrity within the cluster of personal effectiveness was considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. For leaders to be effective in terms of their integrity, they must consistently act upon their espoused values and beliefs (Cherniss and Coleman, 2001; Ofsted, 2003; Gilbert, 2005). Leaders lacking competence with this characteristic fail to act consistently with values and even fail to cultivate an open and honest climate (Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Conger, 1999; Church, 2000).

In driving for results, a leader will be effective when exhibiting relentless energy for setting and meeting challenging targets whilst often taking entrepreneurial risks (Strange and Mumford, 2002; Khurana, 2002; Cooper, 2005). It was found that the RFU as an organisation was perceived as lacking the characteristic of driving for results

in terms of any contribution towards effective leadership. Lack of competence in relation to this characteristic often leads to the leader failing to set specific performance goals that stretch him/herself, their team and indeed the organisation. It was found that flexibility was considered a strength in the personal effectiveness cluster, with the RFU as an organisation clearly willing to change ideas or perceptions based on new information or evidence. Various literature (Cherniss and Coleman, 2001; Popper and Mayseless, 2003; Gerzon, 2006) recognises that lack of competence with this characteristic can lead to the leader failing to make decisions and take actions suitable to the context.

5.2.2.12 Interpersonal Effectiveness

It was found that the characteristic of self-confidence was not considered a strength in relation to the RFU as an organisation. This is a concern as a number of key researchers (Higgs and Dulewicz, 1999; Cherniss and Coleman, 2001; Cranwell-Ward et al, 2002) believe self-confidence to be critical in the quest to be an effective leader. Indeed, an inability to state confidence in own ability, to such challenges, and to act independently is a clear indication of a leader's lack of self-confidence (Goleman, 1996; Daft, 1999; Brundrett et al, 2003).

It was found that the remaining three characteristics within the interpersonal effectiveness cluster were deemed competent in relation to the RFU as an organisation. Impact and influence was perceived as competent on the grounds that ideas were put forward assertively using powers of persuasion that would be adapted to fit differing contexts. Similarly, teamwork and cooperation was deemed a competent characteristic, where leaders were seen to actively work to increase cooperation among team members. Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) and Cherniss and Coleman (2001) reinforce that both impact and influence along with teamwork and cooperation are key interpersonal effectiveness cluster contributions. Finally, the relationship building characteristic illustrated the fact that the RFU as an organisation used personal and professional networks to seek information of strategic importance, which are actions endorsed by researchers such as Goleman, 1998; Buckingham, 2005 and Kumari et al, 2005.

5.2.2.13 Organisational Climate

It was found that the RFU as an organisation was perceived as lacking in terms of promoting an organisational climate that offered both flexibility and reward in relation to the climate that was created by RRDM's. The RFU as an organisation was perceived by RRDM's themselves as wholly lacking in terms of promoting an organisational climate that was positive in terms of all six dimensions pertinent to this study i.e. lacking in dimensional terms in relation to flexibility, responsibility, standards, rewards, clarity and team commitment.

It has long been established (Maslow, 1954; McGregor, 1960; Argyris, 1962) that there is a direct link between organisational climate and an organisation's performance, and indeed more recent studies (Hooper and Potter, 1997; Dunphy et al, 2003; Smith, 2003; Hughes et al, 2006) reinforce that view.

5.2.2.14 Flexibility

It was found that flexibility was deemed a negative organisational climate dimension at the RFU by both the RDO's and the RRDM's. Recent literature (Hay McBer, 1998; Daft, 1999; Sevy, 2000; Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b) promotes the notion of a positive culture in an organisation being dependent on the dimension of flexibility. A negative climate in flexibility terms can arise from too many layers of authority, poorly defined responsibilities and unclear lines of accountability (Brown and Thornborrow,1996; Smith, 2003;).

5.2.2.15 Responsibility

It was found that the responsibilty was deemed to be a positive organisational climate dimension by the RDO's but not by the RRDM's. A negative climate in responsibility terms can arise from leaders denying their followers opportunities to learn from their successes and failures (Hay McBer, 1998; Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b). Reluctance to delegate responsibility, and lack of encouragement in relation to risk taking can drive the responsibility dimension down (Szyilagi and Wallace, 1990).

5.2.2.16 Standards

It was found that standards was deemed to be a positive organisational climate dimension by the RDO's but not by the RRDM's. The standards dimension of organisational climate is compromised if improved performance is not an expectation, and realistic but challenging targets are not set (Hay McBer, 1998; Smith, 2003;). Leaders need to put improved performance, and the strategies of feedback and information release to improve performance, at the top of their agenda (Northouse, 1997).

5.2.2.17 Rewards

It was found that rewards was deemed to be a negative organisational climate dimension at the RFU by both the RDO's and the RRDM's. A negative climate in terms of rewards often evolves from staff failing to receive regular, balanced feedback on their performance, and/or lack of appropriate staff development opportunities (Hay McBer, 1998; Daft,1999;). Public opportunities to reward achievement, and the avoidance of a critical culture is conducive to the promotion of a positive rewards dimension (Smith, 2003; Pierce and Newstrom, 2006).

5.2.2.18 Clarity

It was found that clarity was deemed to be a positive organisational climate dimension by the RDO's but not by the RRDM's. The dimension of clarity is best promoted when leaders promote a culture in which staff know what is expected and understand their personal contribution to an organisation's goals (Brown and Thornborrow, 1990; Daft, 1999). Clarity is compromised when chains of command and authority are unclear, and company policy is not clearly articulated (Hughes et al, 2006)

5.2.2.19 Team Commitment

It was found that team commitment was deemed a positive organisational climate dimension at the RFU by the RDO's but not the RRDM's. The co-operation of individuals to achieve targets (Hay Mcber, 1998; Smith, 2003;), and the valuing of all

opinions are distinctive features of a positive dimension of team commitment (Sevy, 2000)

The RFU should seek to address these perceptions, not least because of the raft of studies suggesting that a negative organisational climate can significantly impact on an organisation's performance (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Sevy, 2000; Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b).

5.3. CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to determine the effect of leadership styles competency frameworks on the leadership effectiveness of the RRDM, and a further aim was to investigate the impact of organisational climate on the role of the RRDM and those who they lead.

According to the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be made:

- The RFU as an organisation need to consider how it can promote the effective employment of the directive and pacesetting leadership styles in general terms, whilst accommodating individual leaders development needs across the range of leadership styles.

- The RFU as an organisation needs to consider how it can promote the competencies (measurable characteristics of leaders that are related to their effective performance in a given role) conducive to developing talent, strategic perspective, environmental scanning, conceptual thinking, driving for results and self confidence, whilst accommodating individual leaders developmental needs across the range of competencies.

- The RFU as an organisation needs to consider how it can promote a more positive organisational climate in relation to the dimensions of flexibility, responsibility, standards, rewards, clarity and team commitment, whilst accommodating individual leaders developmental needs across the range of dimensions.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF) for RRDM's

Many of the 'best' organisations now have competency models at different levels, and that such models help to clarify expectations of performance and describe the skills necessary for promotion. They can also help human resource departments to nurture leadership talent.

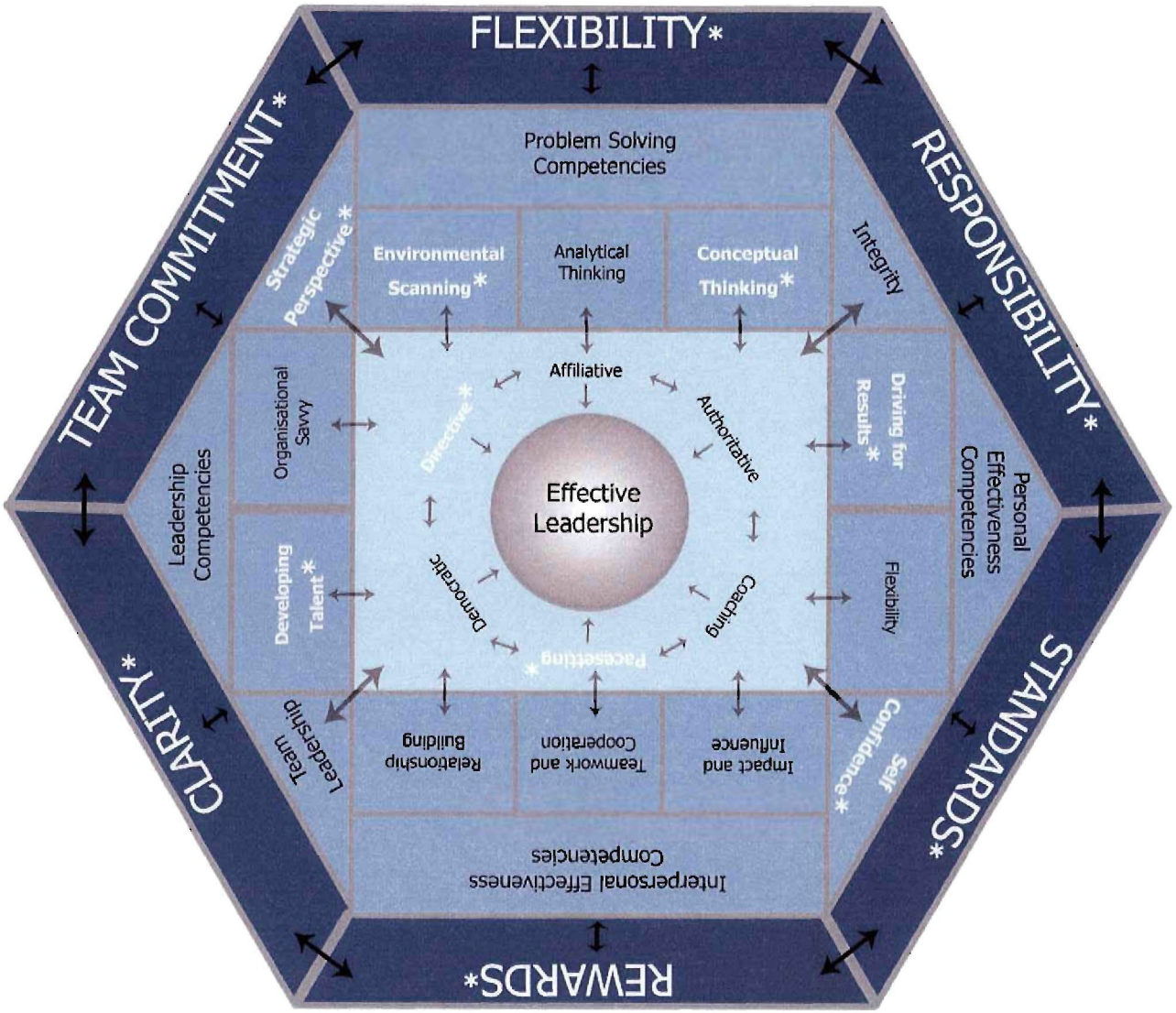
In developing a leadership style competency framework for RRDM's, the RFU should consider developing leadership styles, personal characteristics and organisational climate dimensions in relation to itself as an organisation, and for individuals where the multi-rater feedback instruments (see Chapters 3 and 4) have identified areas for development. It is suggested that the framework applies to those with leadership responsibilities across a raft of high profile sporting contexts in South Africa, the United Kingdom and beyond (see 1.1).

A Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF) for RRDM's should consider interaction between leadership styles, individual competencies and organisational climate created. The proposed framework in figure 5.1 seeks to highlight that effective leadership mainly emerges from a balanced level of competence that results when the appropriate leadership style(s) is (are) employed to meet the demands of the task, the people involved and the situation to hand. Individual characteristics will impact on choice of style(s) selected by the leader, as will the organisational climate in existence. There is also a link between characteristics e.g. analytical thinking underpins a raft of more complex characteristics such as driving for results, developing talent and scanning the environment. Another example is strategic perspective which reinforces scanning the environment and building relationships. The effects (positive and negative) of leadership styles employed, and their influence on the organisational climate is also considered e.g. inappropriate employment of the coercive and pacesetting leadership styles can drive the organisational climate downwards by relying on negative, corrective feedback or exhibiting little sympathy for poor performance. The shortcomings of individuals are identified by regular diagnosis from appropriate instruments (5.4.2.1 / 5.4.2.2 / 5.4.2.3), and such issues can be addressed for individuals by way of appropriate development programmes (see 5.4.2.4).

The following framework was developed through this study in a number of ways. The literature review as illustrated in Chapter 2, a literature search for existing competency models, an analysis of the results of the research instruments as illustrated in Chapters 3 and 4, and preliminary discussions with the RFU as an organisation, which included a consideration of the job description for the RRDM's. In the context of this study, a competency framework is seen as a set of behaviours and competencies that an organisation deems to be important in promoting effective leadership and successful performance. The framework suggested as a result of this study (figure 5.1), recognises that the notion of leadership styles, personal competencies and organisational climate must be linked and operating in sympathy with each other in an ideal setting. The framework illustrates 'Priority Development Areas' for the whole RFU as an organisation from an RRDM perspective. The framework could also be expressed (exhibiting 'Priority Development Areas') for individual RRDM's in sympathy with the analyses identified from the battery of instruments employed. The RFU also recognises that leadership training is required to promote the RRDM's appropriate employment of leadership styles (particularly in the generic realm of the directive and pacesetting styles), whilst facilitating individual RRDM training needs in developing personal competencies. The challenge is to achieve an appropriate balance and sophistication to the leadership training that recognises the research that suggests that the appropriate employment of the visionary, affiliative, democratic and coaching leadership styles tend to drive an organisational climate in a positive direction, whilst inappropriate employment of the directive and pacesetting styles can tend to drive an organisational climate downwards.

A recognised leadership styles competency framework was not in place at the RFU for RRDM's at the time of this study, and it is suggested that the framework (Figure 5.1) and the training proposed is summarised by the recommendation that the RFU's ongoing leadership aspiration should be to:

Promote 'world class' performance
Create a compelling vision for the future
Inspire ALL to achieve
Demonstrate a passion for ALL connected



* = 'Priority Development Area' for RFU as an organisation (RRDM perspective). Framework adaptable to individual needs of RRDM's, as identified by battery of tests.

Figure 5.1: Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF) for RRDM's (current author)

The requirements for RRDM's at levels deemed to be appropriate have been set (e.g. see level descriptors attached to personal competencies in Section 4.3.2) and the context is firmly established through an extensive job description (see Appendix 3) and the organisation's aims and objectives (Section 2.9.1).

5.4.2 Leadership Development Programmes

The findings of this study depict that the RFU needs to consider a leadership development programme that promotes effective use of the directive and pacesetting leadership styles, and nurtures in particular the personal competencies of developing talent, strategic perspective, environmental scanning, conceptual thinking, driving for results and self confidence in its RRDM's. A focus on promoting effective dimensions in terms of the organisational climate created is also an ideal. Individual requirements for RRDM's to be identified as suggested below:

5.4.2.1 Regular (annually) employment of a Leadership Styles Inventory for all RRDM's in the quest to provide diagnostic information as to which styles are effective and ineffective in relation to the RRDM's role. The ideal would be that the RRDM would acquire styles in their repertoire that are both complementary and compensatory (see 3.4.1.8).

5.4.2.2 Regular (biennially) employment of a competency portfolio instrument for all RRDM's in the quest to measure a groups of competencies (see Section 3.4.2.4) most likely to make a positive leadership performance difference to RRDM's and similar roles at the RFU.

5.4.2.3 Regular (biennially) employment of an Organisational Climate survey in the quest to assess the organisational climate created in each RRDM's region (see Section 3.4.3.1). Organisational climate affects organisational performance through its influence on employee motivation, remembering that in most professions there is a vast gulf between what employees must do to meet expectations and what they can do if they perform to full potential.

5.4.2.4 The RFU needs to develop a leadership development programme for RRDM's that incorporates a continuous process of education, training, learning and support activities that take place in work-based or other settings (see Appendix 8). The programme should focus on promoting the learning and development of professionally appropriate knowledge, skills and values. The appropriate diet of leadership development activities/tasks, tailored to the needs of each delegate, should promote the growth of effective leaders. Since Adair (1988) promoted his ten key principles for developing leaders, leadership development programmes have gathered pace. Davies (1994) put the case that developing leadership is the result of a well-integrated understanding of one's own and other people's personality preferences, behaviours, motivation and skills, coupled with the sensitive application of relevant management techniques in ways appropriate to the needs of the particular situation. He deemed that an effective leadership development programme should encompass self-insight through a mix of assessment exercises, psychological tests and questionnaires, survey feedback in particular from the individual's line manager, peers and staff, and lectures dealing with large-scale behavioural simulations. The approval compares favourably with the leadership development programme designed for RRDM's thus far (see Appendix 8). The developed programme for RRDM's adheres to Davies' aspiration that each portion of the programme purports to the following three objectives. The first objective is that each portion must add something which will being the participating manager one step closer to being a fully committed, effective leader. The second objective is that each must also be planned so that its specific input builds on previous inputs and reinforces them. It must also make explicit the relationship between the previous inputs, the current learning experience and the next learning experience in the programme sequence. The final objective is that each portion and the whole programme subscribes to the basic three-step framework of learning – "unfreeze" the participating manager and get his or her attention; give good, fresh, relevant input; and then "refreeze" to enable the participating manager to benefit from the experience and develop leadership.

The design of effective leadership develop programmes that add value and contribute to an organisation's success is a difficult and challenging field. There has been little research on establishing how much learning from leadership development programmes has been transferred back into the workplace. Much of what has been done in leadership development falls drastically short. It has been too vague, too dated and too

theoretical. It has rarely been tied to an organisation's immediate needs, nor has it prepared leaders for the challenges of the future. An approach to leadership development programmes that combine theoretical concepts with opportunities to apply observable behaviours is required.

Research (e.g. Cacioppe,1998) refers to competency models employed by the chairman of a leading international company which used the basis of three broad competencies. The first was *setting the agenda* involved focusing on results by responding to the customer and developing intellectual skills to creatively think outside the box. The second was the notion of *taking others with you* involved developing others in your team and aligning the leadership of the organisation to deliver business results. Finally, was the competency of *doing it the right way* which entailed respect for others and using diversity effectively. Further research (Davies, 1994; Cacioppe, 1998;) supports the standard in-house leadership programme involving one-on-one coaching sessions that build on the 360 degree feedback process (see Appendix 8).

Marquardt (2000) believes that the 21st century demands new kinds of leaders with new skills, and that action learning is effective in developing leaders because it is adaptable and flexible. He refers to a servant-leader approach to leadership development, where there is an increased service to others, a holistic approach to work and shared decision making. Servant-leaders' must be willing to suspend their need for control. This approach to action learning could, for example, enable the leader to promote more effective use of the coercive style of leadership (Section 5.2.2.2). The coercive leadership style is most effective when employed in crises situations, or if lack of adherence to RFU policies and procedures would result in serious issues (e.g. failing to implement codes of conduct when working with children) in coaching settings. To develop this style, development programmes could focus on creating opportunities for participants to find their own answers to problems and to learn from each other's perspectives, successes and mistakes in an encouraging climate where participants will both support and challenge each other. Programme content must allow delegates to refrain from displaying their own knowledge and understanding, and challenging individual and group assumptions. They must be encouraged to provide difficult feedback to colleagues, asking questions that assist them in exploring the reasoning behind their assumptions, whilst acknowledging mistakes publicly and framing them as learning experiences.

In most recent times, Hughes et al (2006) put the case that no leader has all of the knowledge and skills necessary to be effective, and indeed suggest most leaders have multiple development needs. They also suggest that any development plan should be focussed on only one or two needs because addressing more could be unachievable and overwhelming, and promote a development pipeline originally forwarded by Personnel Decisions International Corporation in 2000.

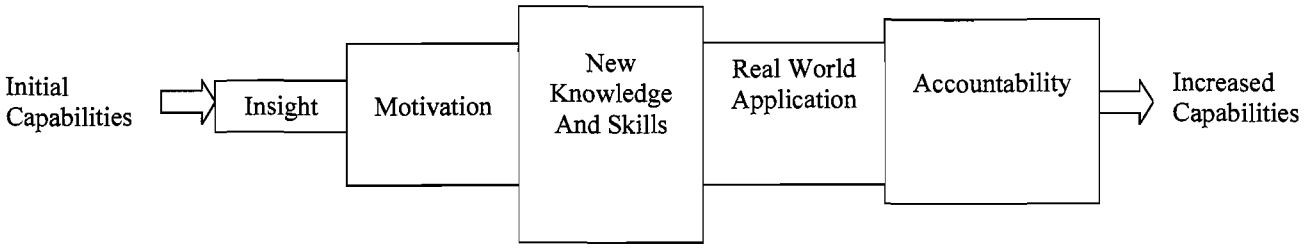


Figure 5.2: The Development Pipeline

The RFU's focus as an organization should be on designing leadership development programmes aimed at promoting more effective employment of the leadership styles as illustrated in Section 5.2.2.1, the competencies highlighted in Section 5.2.2.8, and the dimensions of organisational climate highlighted in Section 5.2.2.13.

5.5 Shortcomings of this study

5.5.1 The relatively short life of the RRDM at the time of testing (some only in post for three months) is unlikely to have impacted negatively on the Leadership Styles Inventory or Competency Portfolio findings, but the organisational climate may not have yet fully developed.

5.5.2 The dynamic momentum in the game of rugby football can lead to varying external environmental pressures (e.g. different constituent bodies affecting different RRDM's to positive or negative effect) which could impact on the leadership styles employed, and the organisational climate created. Greater coercion can sometimes be required in order to respond to issues and initiatives, and this can impact negatively on the organisational climate created.

5.6 Recommendations for Further Study

5.6.1 It would be to the advantage of the RFU as an organisation, and to the realm of leadership studies, to study how an emotional intelligence based raft of leadership styles affects organisational climate. Previous research indicates, for example, that the coercive leader relies on power of position, and is handicapped by a lack of empathy. Future studies could seek to prove or disprove this hypothesis.

5.6.2 It would be to the advantage of the RFU as an organisation, and to the realm of leadership studies, to focus on RRDM's still in position since the launch of the post in 2001, to ascertain ways in which the leadership styles they employ have changed and indeed their leadership behaviours and organisational climate that they create.

5.6.3 The proposed Leadership Styles Competency Framework (LSCF) (*Figure 5.1*) could be applied effectively around the world in school and club rugby settings.

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SCHOOLS INCENTIVE PACK

RDO/RRDM Briefing Pack



COMMUNITY RUGBY

All you need to introduce, improve, and recognise the quality of rugby union delivery in schools.

Supported by

department for
education and skills
creating opportunity, releasing potential, achieving excellence

Dear Colleague,

The Rugby Football Union (RFU), through the work of their Rugby Development Officers (RDO's), Constituent (County) Body Rugby Development Partnerships (CBRDP), and with the assistance of the Department of Education and Skills (DfES), are committed to the support and development of the game of rugby union in YOUR partnership or school. **It is envisaged that the main focus will be secondary-aged schools.** The key objectives are to:

i) support the development of the game within schools. – both curriculum and out-of-school-hours
ii) develop links with rugby union clubs to give all young people an opportunity to play the game, outside of the school environment

In order to help achieve these aims the RFU have developed this incentive pack for schools. The pack offers a number of development tools from which partnership / school staff, in conjunction with their local RDO, may select a bespoke "toolkit" best-suited to their needs. The scheme seeks to support schools in this way in return for teachers developing the game within the curriculum, out-of-school-hours, and, where practical, within the wider rugby community.

The Programme has three parts:

- The Incentive Pack – a £200 grant school for a limited number of schools per county / Constituent Body
- The RFU Development School Award – an accreditation scheme recognising good practise in school rugby
- The RFU Discounted Kit brochure – quality, RFU branded, discounted rugby kit for your school to buy

How does the Schools Incentive Pack operate?

The Community Rugby Development Team (the RDO's and support staff) will work closely with teachers, Partnership Development Managers, School Sport Co-ordinators and sports development officers to introduce and support the game in **secondary-age schools.** Implemented effectively, this programme may be used to support the delivery of both the "Programme Outcomes" and "Partnership Aims" of local school sport partnerships through the development of a range of Rugby Union opportunities for both pupils and staff. *[note to RDO's: the Programme Outcomes and Partnership Aims are shown overleaf]*

Each school/partnership invited onto the programme has the opportunity to select from a variety of development "tools" ranging from teacher/staff training, resources, kit, and links to local clubs.

Each item on the list has a monetary value attached to it (eg. TAG Rugby Award - £30.00) and each school has an RFU grant of £200 to spend. Some of the "tools" are compulsory others are discretionary. Schools may order as many items as they wish from the list, enclosing a cheque for any amount over the limit of the £200 grant. Invited schools can only apply once every two years. In return for this support the schools involved would be expected to work on a number of appropriate rugby developments in their school; for example, some or all of the following:

- Teacher in service training (the opportunity for one or more teachers to attend one or more, relevant coaching award)
- Out of School Hours Learning opportunities
- External or internal competitive opportunities
- School/club links (a formal relationship to be initiated with a local rugby club)
- Affiliate to the England Rugby Football Schools Union

Each RDO will be allocated a specific number (circulated separately) of these awards each year, dependant on the total number of schools in their area. This allocation must be strictly adhered to – the number per RDO will be reviewed annually.

In order to take advantage of this scheme schools teachers are invited to complete the attached form and return it (with additional payment if necessary, payable to "Rugby Football Union") to:

Schools Incentive Pack, Community Department, Rugby House, Rugby Road, Twickenham, Middlesex, TW1 1DS

How does the RFU Development School Award operate?

The Community Rugby Development Team (the RDO's and support staff) will work closely with teachers, Partnership Development Managers, School Sport Co-ordinators and sports development officers to offer this award (a "Seal of Approval" for schools). This accreditation is awarded to schools who meet a range of criteria (shown on the attached form) and collate the evidence required. The submission is assessed by the local RDO and if all the criteria are met the school will receive the award. This last for 2 years, at which point the school should be re-assessed.

Kit Order Form

The pack also comes with an RFU, Community Rugby, rugby kit order form produced by Jessica Mills. This kit is specially discounted for schools and only available through this scheme. The form should be sent off by the RD O to Erin Mitchell at HQ; it then goes to Jessica Mills at RFU Castlecroft. The Incentive Pack (£200 grant) can be used to offset some cost – shown in the last part of the table.

School Sport Co-ordinators: Programme Outcomes

Public Service Agreement Target

Is to enhance the take up of sporting opportunities by 5 – 16 year olds. The aim is to increase the percentage of school children in England who spend a minimum of 2 hours each week on high quality PE and School Sport within and beyond the curriculum to 75% by 2006. From April 2006, the new PSA target will be: 85% of 5 – 16 year olds spending at least 2 hours on high quality PE and sport by 2008 (within and beyond the curriculum) with a floor target for every partnership of 75%.

Programme	Outcomes

- Increase in participation
- Increase in attainment in PE
- Increase in whole school performance
- Increase in performance in sport
- Improvements in attitude and behaviour
- Impact of the SSCo programme on teaching and coaching (CPD)
- Increase in young people moving into community sport and physical activity
- Increase in programmes affecting the following target groups:
  - Girls
  - Young disabled people
  - Young people from black and ethnic minorities

- **Strategic Planning** - to develop and implement a PE and school sport strategy, as part of school development plans, through working in partnership with key strategic organisations and providers in the area.
- **School Liaison** - to improve PE and school sport programmes by establishing and developing links within and between the families of schools (particularly around the Key Stage 2/3 interface).
- **School to Community Links** - to increase all young people's participation in community sport through creating and strengthening links with sports clubs, leisure facilities and community providers.
- **Out of School Hours Learning** - to provide new and enhanced out-of-school-hours opportunities for all young people in the partnership, including out-of-school-hours learning, non-competitive participation and competition.
- **Coaching and Leadership** - to provide training, support and deployment opportunities in leadership, coaching and officiating for senior pupils, teachers and AOTT's.
- **Raising Standards** - to raise standards of pupil's achievement in all aspects of their school life, through increased participation and improved performance, motivation and attitudes.

[Courtesy of YST, 2004]

Schools Incentive Pack

(Please photocopy if necessary)

School Name		Teacher Name	
Address		School Tel No	
		Email	
Post Code		LEA	

Area	Item	Description	Unit Value (£ inc VAT)	Number / size	Subtotal (£)
Equipment	Rugby Balls	Sizes 3 / 4 / 5; training balls suitable for indoor & outdoor use	6.00	/	
	Coloured Bibs	Primary or Secondary size	1.00	/	
	TAG belts	Junior – quality fabric belt, suitable for mixed, non-contact games	3.00		
	Cones (x25)	Stack of multi-coloured safety cones	10.00		
Curriculum Support	Museum of Rugby Schools Pack	Key Stage 2 teachers guide – cross-curricular pack & video	FREE	1	FREE
	Museum of Rugby Schools Pack	Key Stage 3 teachers guide – cross-curricular pack & video	FREE	1	FREE
Player Development	RFU Proficiency Award Pack	Rugby skills awards for pupils; pack includes all tests, (KS1-4) and badge order form; excellent, outcome-driven, measurement tool	25.00		
ERFSU	Membership*	All the benefits of membership of the Schools Union	10.00	1	10.00
	Insurance*	Receive the benefits of official RFU insurance for your school	20.00	1	20.00
Teacher / Coach Training* (one or more teachers to attend one or more courses)	TAG Rugby Award	3 hr non assessed ; KS 1& 2 staff – suitable for curriculum delivery or OSHL; also suitable for AOTTS training	30.00		
	Coaching Contact Rugby	3 hr non assessed; KS 3 & 4 – how to introduce and develop tackling skills and other contact elements of the game	10.00		
	Coach XV-a-side	3 hr non assessed; KS 3 & 4 – team organisation	10.00		
	Game-sense Coaching	3 hr non assessed; KS 3 & 4 – game-play coaching	10.00		
	RFU Community Leaders Award	5hr non-assessed; Yr 10+ pupils – leadership & coaching award	15.00		
Free Gifts	RFU Polo Shirt*	Community Rugby polo shirt (s/m/l/xl/xxl)	FREE	1 /	FREE
	World Cup Team Posters	Large colour posters – for notice board displays	FREE	10	FREE
	Skills / Positional Posters	Large colour posters – for notice board displays	FREE	1 set	FREE
	Pens	Biro pens carrying logo	FREE	20	FREE
	Team Sheets	Branded, tear-off team sheets for your school	FREE	1 pad	FREE
Coaching Support	Qualified, CRB, RFU Coach	Up to 5 hours of quality coaching support at specified location (subject to availability - check with RDO for local opportunities)	15.00 (pr hr)		
		Sub- total		(a)	

RFU Official Schools Rugby Team Kit

Please see attached order form for details of specially-discounted, official Community Rugby kit for your school to order.	Total cost of kit ordered (b)	
	(x) Grand Total (a + b)	
	(y) RFU Grant	£200.00
	School contribution (x-y)	£

RFU Development School Award

The RFU have introduced a scheme specifically aimed at recognising **secondary** schools whose staff work hard to develop quality rugby opportunities **where little or no rugby may have been taking place in the past**. The award may be used as a marketing tool to promote the level of rugby activity that takes place in the school, e.g. on school letterhead.

The attached form identifies the criteria required to reach this standard and details how to make an application. Successful schools will be entitled to use the award for two years from the date of issue.

RDO Guidance

The award should be viewed as another tool in the tool-kit for the RDO. This scheme will not only help to gauge how much rugby is taking place in a school but also should help to initiate some development work as well. It will be particularly useful when worked in conjunction with a Community Rugby Coach. It may be that the coach, during their school visits, can start to implement the award scheme on your behalf.

The form shown below is the form that schools are required to complete to apply for the accreditation. This is included in their "Incentive Pack". Many schools will not meet the criteria initially, but when used in conjunction with the Incentive Pack tool-kit they may be able to reach the required delivery levels.

It is hoped that the form is self-explanatory. You will find that some of the criteria are clear and objective, others are more subjective and open to the discretion of the RDO or CRC. Remember – the award is a development tool, similar to the Seal of Approval. It is recognition from the RFU that the school staff deliver Rugby Union to a certain degree and standard. It could therefore be viewed as a recommendation from us for parents assessing a schools potential for their child in terms of its sport & PE curriculum for rugby.

To meet the criteria, and thus the award, the schools put together a small application pack containing all the information required (as shown overleaf). Once the RDO is satisfied that all the criteria are met the form may be signed off.

Remember – schools must send all completed forms to their RDO. It would be prudent to set up a database and record all the schools that have applied, gone through the programme and attained the award.

Once signed off – award forms go to Erin Mitchell at Twickenham.

RFU Development School Award (Example FORM)

The RFU have introduced an evidence-based scheme specifically aimed at recognising secondary schools whose staff & volunteers work hard to develop quality rugby opportunities where little or no rugby may have been taking place in the past.

The form shown below identifies the criteria required to reach this standard and details how to make an application. Successful schools will be entitled to use the award for two years from the date of issue. After this period schools will be required to undertake a re-assessment.

School Name		Teacher Name	
Address		School Tel No	
		Email	
Post Code		LEA	

Area	Descriptor	Evidence (submit all or selected items)	RDO Assessment / Comments
Curriculum	• 15 hours curriculum rugby union activity in any one academic year	• Breakdown of year groups, terms and timings • PE schemes of work	
Out of School Hours	• At least one out-of-school-hours, structured rugby activity • Minimum 10 hours per academic year	• Breakdown of year groups, terms and timings • Copy promotional information	
Competition	• entry to local rugby union festivals, as appropriate to school, in last 12 months • RFU Emerging Schools Y7/Y8 tournaments • Local Tag rugby events (girls/boys/ mixed)	• Details of events, dates, location, no of teams • RDO to confirm	
Coaching	• At least 1 teacher or AOTT qualified to RFU Level 1 or equivalent • Evidence of relevant CPD activity	• Copy certificate • Details / evidence of CPD	
School / Club Links	• Evidence of a pro-active, school-club link • At least one local rugby union club	• Details of link / relationship • Numbers of players benefiting over last 12 months	
Player Development	• School pupils with potential encouraged into club rugby and/or local development opportunities (eg Area / county squads)	• Example / testimony from school staff • Pupil / RDO testimony	
Equity	• Opportunities are open to girls as well as boys, where appropriate • All pupils have the chance to participate	• Confirmation from school staff • Pupil / RDO testimony	

Administration	• ERFSU Membership	• Copy certificate / number	
	• ERFSU Insurance	• Copy certificate / number	
	• local County Schools Affiliation	• RDO to confirm / teacher testimony	

If you have any queries please contact your local RFU Rugby Development Officer (RDO). Please submit this form to your local RDO. (see www.rfu.com for details)

SCHOOLS INCENTIVE PACK - **Step-by Step Guide**

Dear Colleague,

The following action plan details the process by which applications are required to be made to the Rugby Football Union. These simple steps will ensure that the needs of the applicants are met efficiently and effectively.

Step	Action	Personnel	RDO Guidance
Pre I	Familiarisation	• Rugby Development Officer • CRC's / Administrators	• Pack information received • Possibly pick a pilot school in your area • Prepare covering letter
Pre II	Pack Distribution	• Rugby Development Officer	• Send out to targeted local schools with covering letter • May wish to target clusters (for your own sanity) so the roll out can be gradual and strategic
1	Initial planning meeting	• Partnership Development Manager • Or other strategic schools representative • Rugby Development Officer	• Outline local needs • Determine structure & focus • Prepare delivery plan • Outline Development Award
2*	Cluster planning workshop (*if multiple schools)	• As above, plus • Cluster schools representatives • Local Community Rugby Coach	• Meet school reps • Complete application forms
3	Application Form – Pack & Kit - completed and submitted to RDO	• Schools representative	• Photocopy for own records • Ensure appropriate delivery address
3.1	RDO collates school form & passes on to HQ	• RDO	• RDO then passes Incentive Pack on to HQ – Erin Mitchell • & Kit order to Jessica Mills @ Castlecroft
4	Incentive Pack items dispatched	RFU staff at Twickenham / Castlecroft	• Goods dispatched within 2-3 weeks • Castlecroft – Jessica Mills

5	Coach / Teacher Education courses run	• Rugby Development Officer / appropriate RFU tutor	• Central venue for registered schools • Suitable facilities required for specific course • Min. three week run in time
6	Appropriate schools to submit application for RFU Development School Award	• Head of Physical Education or Teacher i/c Rugby Union	• Consult with local RDO prior to commencing application • Forms sent to RDO
7	Application Assessment	• Rugby Development Officer	• Assessed against range of criteria • Suitable, tangible evidence required • RDO to sign off & forward to RFU – Erin Mitchell
8	Award Granted (or deferred for further development)	• RFU Administrator • Rugby Development Officer	• to forward outcome / certificate to RDO • arrange presentation of award & related promotional activities
9	Re-assessment & re-application	• Rugby Development Officer	• Award valid for two years • Funding is available after 2 years (schools cannot re-apply year-on-year • Application to be re-submitted after this time

If you have any queries please contact your local RFU Rugby Development Officer.
(see www.rfu.com for details)

FAQ's

What's this Incentive Pack all about then?

The Schools Incentive Pack is a multi-faceted rugby development programme targeted at schools, both primary and secondary, to assist teachers and other school staff and volunteers to delivery quality rugby union opportunities to young people in their charge. It is particularly targeted at schools who play little or no rugby and want to implement a development programme both in and out of schools hours, with an eye on developing community wide links with clubs and other organisations.

What does it include & what is the process?

Which Part?	What is it?	Who is it for?	Apply to...	RDO to...
Schools Incentive Pack	a £200 budget and menu of goods and services offered by the RFU which schools may order from	Primary & Secondary Age Schools	RDO	Twickenham (Erin Mitchell)
RFU Development School Award	an award similar to Seal of Approval where secondary schools (ONLY) who meet certain delivery criteria can apply for a two-year accreditation	**Secondary Age Schools ONLY**	RDO	Twickenham (Erin Mitchell)
Community Rugby Kit Brochure	a discounted range of rugby attire for teams and teachers / coaches, linked to the £200 grant.	Primary & Secondary Age Schools	RDO	Castlecroft (Jessica Mills)

What if a school already has affiliated to ERFSU and has taken the insurance?

In this case the school need not include these two items in their order and they may allocate the £30 to other goods or services.

Who can apply for the RFU Development School Award?

Any secondary-age school. Unfortunately primary age only schools cannot apply for this award but they are eligible for the £200 grant if local conditions make this more appropriate. They may also apply for the discounted Community Rugby Kit.

I'm a Partnership Development Manager, how can this help me?

This programme has been designed specifically with your Programme Outcomes & Partnership Aims in mind. In particular "strategic planning" can take place with your local RDO and / or Community Rugby Coach; you may be able to maximise the benefits by bringing together all the £200 grants from each of your partner schools using the funding in a strategic manner.

What happens if we spend more than the £200?

Any school can add to the £200 from its own funds. Simply enclose a cheque for the difference, payable to "Rugby Football Union" and enclose with the forms

Can I apply for the Award at the same time as the Incentive Pack?

Yes, but to be successful the school MUST meet all the criteria to the satisfaction of the RDO. The Incentive Pack (and development process) is designed to help schools achieve the accreditation through planned, progressive implementation over a 6-24 month period.

RUGBY FOOTBALL UNION

JOB DESCRIPTION

NAME:

JOB TITLE: **REGIONAL RUGBY DEVELOPMENT MANAGER**

REGION:

DEPARTMENT: **COMMUNITY & OPERATIONS**

REPORTS TO: **HEAD OF RUGBY DEVELOPMENT**

NATURE AND SCOPE OF JOB

To be responsible for the day-to-day management and development of Team Leaders, RDO's, RUSLO's, Community Coaches and any other identified Development Staff within the region.

To liaise with Constituent Bodies (CBRDP) and other agencies in leading the delivery and management of the RFU Strategic Plan at regional level.

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Manage, deploy and develop the Regional Team of Team Leaders, RDO's, RUSLO's Community Coaches and other personnel within the region responsible for rugby to meet the agreed objectives.

2. Lead and manage the implementation and production of the RFU Strategic Plan at regional level through liaison with all relevant agencies including Regional Sports Boards, RFUW and Premier Rugby.

3. Lead and manage the programmes of work and financial procedures within the agreed budget ensuring value for money at all times.

4. Help establish and maintain an effective working relationship with all CBRDP's, Regional Sports Boards within the region.

5. Liaise with the Community Rugby Service Department and all other relevant agencies to support the delivery of comprehensive Development Programmes throughout the region, e.g. coaching, officiating, funding and facilities.

6. In conjunction with the Regional Academy Director(s) ensure effective links are created and maintained between the Community Game and Academy Structure.

7. Be responsible for the regional co-ordination of National Initiatives as directed by HRD.

8. Carry out any other duties appropriate to the post, e.g. devote time to new initiatives and reactive issues as directed by Head of Rugby Development.

ACCOUNTABILITIES:

The jobholder is accountable for:

1. The efficient day-to-day management and delivery of an effective and credible Development Programme to agreed performance targets and standards.

2. The management and appraisal of Team Leaders, RDO's, RUSLO's, Community Coaches and other identified Development Staff.

3. Ensuring that spending is within personal authorisation limits securing maximum value for money in the most economic and cost effective way.

4. Complying with the RFU Health & Safety Regulations at all times.

LIMITS OF AUTHORITY:

1. Signatory Powers for Contracts and Agreements: No authority

2. Capital Expenditure Authorisation: No authority

3. Cheque Signatory Powers: No authority

4. Can place purchase orders up to the value of £1,000 within agreed budget.

5. Appointment and Dismissal: No powers of appointment of dismissal.

SIGNED

Line Manager _____ Date _____

Jobholder _____ Date _____

APPENDIX 3

RUGBY FOOTBALL UNION

JOB DESCRIPTION

Job Title: REGIONAL RUGBY DEVELOPMENT MANAGER
Department: COMMUNITY RUGBY
Reports to: COMMUNITY RUGBY DIRECTOR
Functionally Reports to: NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT MANAGERS
Key Relationships: CBRDP's, CRC's, RRDM, CSP, PDM

NATURE AND SCOPE

To be responsible for ensuring the delivery of the development programmes drawn up by the National Development Managers in the job holders area of responsibility. Work closely with the National Development Managers over resource allocation at the delivery end.

To be responsible for the day-to-day management co-ordination and development of RDO's, RUSLO's, Community Rugby Coaches and any other identified Development Staff within the region.

To liaise with CB's, CBRDP's and other agencies in the delivery and management of the RFU Strategic Plan at regional level.

PRINCIPLE RESPONSIBILITIES

1 Implement the development plans, programmes and initiatives drawn up by the National Development Managers through the delivery arm of RDO's and CRC's. Manage the programmes of work within the agreed budget ensuring value for money at all times.

2 Manage, deploy and develop the regional delivery team of RDO's, RUSLO's, CRC's and other personnel within the region responsible for rugby to ensure delivery of the above programmes and to meet the agreed objectives.

3 Manage the implementation of the RFU Strategic Plan at regional level through liaison with all relevant agencies including RFUW and Premier Rugby.

4 Help establish and maintain effective working relationships with all CBRDP's and Sport England Regional Sports Boards within the region.

5 Liaise with all other sections within the Community Rugby Department as necessary to support the delivery of comprehensive development programmes throughout the job holders region.

6 In conjunction with the regional Rugby Academy Directors ensure effective links are created and maintained between the Community Game and Academy Structure.

7 Be responsible for the regional co-ordination of any national initiatives.

8 To be responsible for producing consolidated monthly regional reports for the National Development Managers and the Community Rugby Director.

9 To be responsible for establishing, maintaining and updating a regional list of 'at risk' clubs and to ensure support programmes are in place for each.

10 To be responsible for compiling, maintaining and updating a regional list of clubs and the key parameters for delivering club sustainability.

11 To act as an ambassador for and promote the best interests of the RFU at all times.

12 To undertake such other duties as may be required from time to time as are consistent with the responsibilities of the post and the needs of the RFU.

ACCOUNTABILITIES

1 Managing the RDO's and RUSLO's within the job holders region.

2 Implementing the focused development programmes and plans for clubs, schools and students sectors.

3 Ensure effective and close liaison and working relationships with CB's, CBRDP's and other regional bodies.

4 Liaise with Sport England Regional Sports Boards and other regional government agencies.

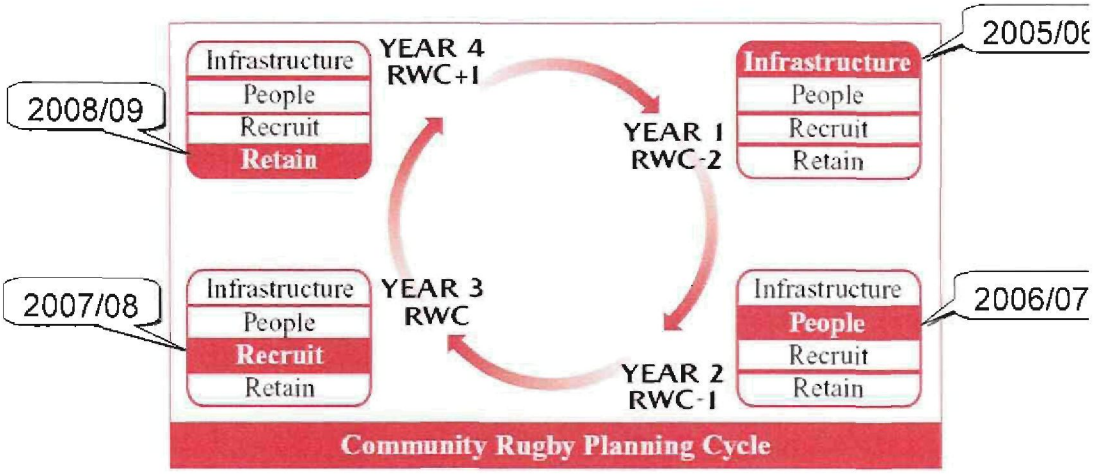
5 Maintain up to date consolidated lists of regional clubs and 'at risk' clubs.

6 Ensure support and assistance is provided to achieve individual club development plans.

7 Produce concise monthly regional reports to the Community Rugby Director.

APPENDIX 4

OUTCOMES & CONTEXT -- four year planning cycle for community rugby.



The main objective of the retreat was to agree the Strategic Plan priorities for the Community Game for season 2006/7 within the context of the four year planning cycle. The desired outcomes for the retreat were:

- Strategic plan priorities for the 'people' year.
- Roles of the Committee & Sub Committee
- Responsibility for strategic plan objectives
- Direction of the Rugby Leaders Conference
- Clear performance measures
- Debate on reorganisation paper (council members only)

The Strategic Themes, IMPACT strategy and planning cycle agreed at the last retreat were reaffirmed.

PLANNING CYCLE PRIORITISATION

Nine of the community rugby objectives were identified as priorities for 'people' season 2006/07:

#	Strategic Plan Objectives	2006/07 Priority	Score
30	Provide a competent referee to every game. Achieve a players/referee ratio of 30:1 by the end of the Plan period.	1	82
4	Achieve a 3% per annum increase in the number of volunteer administrators.	2	59
29	Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching supported by the best coach development system. Achieve a players/coach ratio 15:1 by the end of the Plan period.	3	54
28	Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators.	4	39
1	Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U17 to U24 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	5	34
24	Increase the number of links between HE and FE institutions and local clubs by 2% per annum over the period of the plan.	6	15
5	Increase by 1% year on year throughout the Plan period participation, in all aspects of the game, by groups currently under represented in the game.	7	8
25	Increase the number of Secondary schools affiliating and playing more than 6 matches per annum by 2% per annum of the period of the Plan.	8	5
13	Provide a 'medical issues' service to participants in Community Rugby.	9	4

For each of these priorities we discussed what we could continue to do, stop doing and start doing. Each 'continue' and 'start' were rated as green or red:

- Green = we have the people with the skills, time and resources to do this.
- Red = we do not have the people with the skills, time, and/or resources to do this.

Strategic Plan Objectives	To achieve this priority we should…		
	Continue…	Stop…	Start…
Provide a competent referee to every game. Achieve a players/referee ratio of 30:1 by the end of the Plan period.	Trafalgar	Referee abuse	School/HE/FE/Club referee training. Need for basic teacher training qualification/certificate. - Green Fast tract ex-players -? Promotion and marketing as a physical recreation. (Offer programmes in schools, CSLA ex-players) - Red Stronger link to CBRDP by Referee Society/Federation. "Club Referee Co-ordinator" - Green Marketing and promotion of what we [RFU] do for clubs. Hire PR/Media coverage - Red
Achieve a 3% per annum increase in the number of volunteer administrators.	Reduce paperwork- Encourage volunteering: CVC, Rugby focused, 'Leadership' - Red Responsibility - CB (monitoring) - Club (action) RFU (support) - Red Visibility of the game - Promotion Recoginition: Structures in place? Tangible - Red Youth & Community Target "Youth Game" supporters	Duplication of "needless" paperwork Holding onto too many roles - fear factor - ego - self importance - recognition Pendulum Swinging Fear factor/Blame culture Training/development [back 2 school]	Targeted and relevant communication - Red Being proactive - Red Being advocates - Red Working with clubs - Red Partnership working – critical friend - Red Information exchange - Red Marketing/Promoting/Promotion - Red Identification of potential volunteer groups and the people and skills required - Red
Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching supported by the best coach	Move towards every coach being appropriately qualified. Nationally recognised qualification - Green Ensure high quality of coaching resources. -	Increases in cost of coaching courses - Red Decline in numbers of front row forwards	Clear recruitment/Marketing campaign to increase # of coaches - Red Providing resources to CCC - Green Identifying & deploying specialist coaches

Strategic Plan Objectives	To achieve this priority we should…		
	Continue…	Stop…	Start…
development system. Achieve a players/coach ratio 15:1 by the end of the Plan period.	Green Prioritise good practice in coaching player safety - Green Provide INSET training days for teachers - Red Ensure every club has a CCC - Green	through coaching - Green	(eg line out/kicking etc) - Green Programmes to improve coach development at lower levels - Green Finding a commercial partner to support cost of courses and resources - Red Promoting re-establishment of CB Coaching Societies – Green
Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators.	Leadership academy - Green Revitalise A-Z – Green	Requirement for club balance sheet to RFU	Undertake needs analysis for course design – Red Review + implement recognition methods: Thank more. Focus on "special" - Green Spread practice of 'club development evenings' - Green Loot at + apply web-based learning programmes – Red
Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U17 to U24 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	About development not winning - Green Trafalgar – Red	Over playing of players	Better partnerships between Clubs HE/FE - Red Clubs & Unis to be treated as community rugby clubs - Red With appropriate facilities eg gyms for community use. CCDP? - Red Market + promote the ethos of the game and the social aspects - Red Player tracking – registration - Red
Increase the number of links between HE and FE institutions and local clubs by 2% per annum over the period of the plan.	Working in ALL HE colleges. Establishing "real" links with clubs. Outcome: club gets players, players get regular matches - Green Teams/Leagues in ALL HE colleges. Intra/extra competitions- Utilise the Clube/HE&FE facilities- Training/Education Programmes: Coaching, Officiating, Administration.-		Working in ALL FE (16+ age) colleges - Red CB Membership for FE colleges - Red Understand the FE Sector. Know what is in it for Rugby. - Red Check that the CBRDP is working in this sector - Red FE Rep sites: leagues, tournaments - Red Work in the colleges we are not currently in. - Red

Strategic Plan Objectives	To achieve this priority we should…		
	Continue…	Stop…	Start…
Increase by 1% year on year throughout the Plan period participation, in all aspects of the game, by groups currently under represented in the game.	Developing strength through equity & welfare programmes - Green Monitoring performance - Green Inner-city youth teams - Green	Paying lip service to this problem - Green	Promoting success of elite players from diverse communities - Red Promoting game to under-represented groups - Red Developing & encouraging administrators, coaches & referees from ethnic groups. - Red Researching barriers to participation - Red
Increase the number of Secondary schools affiliating and playing more than 6 matches per annum by 2% per annum of the period of the Plan.	Increase number of club/school links - Red Develop further national school competitions for 'non-playing' rugb schools [for small school participation/not elite' - ?		Target all specialist sports schools to affiliate - Green Sell benefits of affiliation to secondary schools [Link thro CRC's] - Green Provide targeted coaching/refereeing courses for non-PE staff (INSET) - Red Target teachers' union conferences - Green
Provide a 'medical issues' service to participants in Community Rugby.	Protocol for catastrophic injuries - Green Revision of insurance provision - Green Increase #s taking first aid course - Red Injury audit in adult community game - Green		RFU Understand H&S legislation for paid players in community game - Green Advice in A-Z on diet (supplements) Injury prevention and management - Green Set + enforce minimum standards of medical provision at CB representative games (adult -> U15) - Red Consider discount scheme on National basis for physio services/ medics/ nutritionists - Red Disseminate role of Mike England & Team to CB's and Clubs - Green Review Scrummage U19 variations to get safer continuum to adult laws-? Injury audit in Youth Game up to 18 years - Red

COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITY

Community Rugby Standing Committee responsibilities are:

- Consider proposals for the policies and priorities of the Community Game, within the context of the strategic plan and the quadrennial business cycle from:
  - Constituent Bodies (CB);
  - CRSC Sub-Committees;
  - CRSC Task Groups;
  - Other Standing Committees;
  - The Management Board;
  - The RFU Council; and
  - Executive Staff.
- Identify and examine areas of emerging or deficient policy.
- Monitor the performance of the Community Game against the strategic plan and the annual business plan.
- Resolve or make recommendation to the Management Board and Council through appropriate documentation, on the policies and priorities of the Community Game.

CRSC Sub-Committee responsibilities are:

Within the Terms of Reference (TOR) of the sub-committee:

- Identification of any existing policies or strategies which will deliver or act as a barrier to the delivery of the strategic plan;
- Identification and development of new polices or strategies and appropriate performance measures that are required to deliver the strategic plan;
- Review the effect of such policies or strategies in the achievement of the strategic plan; and make recommendation to the CRSC with regard to these policies or strategies.
- Make recommendation to the CRSC on the prioritisation of the achievement of the strategic plan within the quadrennial business cycle.

SUB-COMMITTEE RESPONSIBILITY FOR STRATEGIC PLAN OBJECTIVES

Strategic Plan Objectives	**Ownership**
Achieve a 3% per annum increase in the number of volunteer administrators.	CB & Club Development
Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators.	CB & Club Development

Strategic Plan Objectives	Ownership
Provide a 'medical issues' service to participants in Community Rugby.	CB & Club Development
Establish the concept of 'Beacon Clubs' to provide leadership and direction	CB & Club Development
50% of Clubs to achieve Club Accreditation by the end of the Plan period.	CB & Club Development
Increase awareness in all RFU member organisations of their responsibilities under H & S legislation.	CB & Club Development
Ensure that 50% of applicable clubs are registered as CASCs by the end of 2006/07.	CB & Club Development
Increase the awareness and knowledge of insurance across the whole of the Game.	CB & Club Development
All CB's to adopt and implement their agreed roles and responsibilities by 2006/07	CB & Club Development
All CB's to be encouraged to adopt the updated Model Structure.	CB & Club Development
Achieve funding for all levels of the game from Government and Lottery sources of a minimum of £7m p.a. averaged over the Plan period.	CB & Club Development
Revise and update the National Facilities Strategy and implement the changes.	CB & Club Development
Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching supported by the best coach development system. Achieve a players/coach ratio 15:1 by the end of the Plan period.	Coaching
Increase by 1% year on year throughout the Plan period participation, in all aspects of the game, by groups currently under represented in the game.	CRSC
Maintain the Ethos & Culture of our game as a differentiator with other sports.	CRSC
Establish a clear planning cycle for the development of the Community Game.	CRSC
Evolve RFU from a 'Regulatory Body' to a 'Service Support and Delivery Body' during the period of the Plan.	CRSC
Create partnerships with Premier and National Clubs to the benefit of the Community Game.	CRSC

Strategic Plan Objectives	Ownership
CB funding will be targeted to support priority areas of the Community Rugby work programme.	CRSC
Respond to the Government's regionalisation agenda policy.	CRSC
Ensure that the RFU complies with the Sport England/NSPCC "Standards for the safeguarding of young people in sport"	Governance
Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U17 to U24 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	Playing Development
Increase the number of links between HE and FE institutions and local clubs by 2% per annum over the period of the plan.	Playing Development
Increase the number of Secondary schools affiliating and playing more than 6 matches per annum by 2% per annum of the period of the Plan.	Playing Development
Increase the number of adult participants playing the game by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	Playing Development
Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U13 to U16 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	Playing Development
Increase the number of teams playing recreational rugby events by 5% p.a. over the Plan period.	Playing Development
Ensure that the recommendations of the Schools, Students and Youth Review are fully implemented and reviewed by the end of the period of the Plan.	Playing Development
All clubs with a Mini and Youth section to have at least two links with local schools.	Playing Development
Provide a competent referee to every game. Achieve a players/referee ratio of 30:1 by the end of the Plan period.	RFRU

PERFORMANCE MONITORING

The critical success factors

- The numbers [and diversity] of people playing the game, in particular those aged 16 years of age and above.
- The number [and range] of matches being played.
- Improving the sustainability of Clubs.
- The number of effective people supporting the playing of the game.



The team began the process of creating specific targets and measurements for each of the Community Rugby Strategic Plan Objectives. Further work especially definitions, is required.

#	Strategic Plan Objectives	2006/07 Priority	Ownership	Target	Measurement method	Suggested Measurement Frequency
1	Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U17 to U24 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	5	Playing Development	2%	Club Questionnaire School Census HE/FE = RDO	Annually
24	Increase the number of links between HE and FE institutions and local clubs by 2% per annum over the period of the plan.	6	Playing Development	2%	HE/FE Development Plans = RDO	Monthly Annually
25	Increase the number of Secondary schools affiliating and playing more than 6 matches per annum by 2% per annum of the period of the Plan.	8	Playing Development	2%	Schools affiliation	Annually
2	Increase the number of adult participants playing the game by 2% per annum over the Plan period.		Playing Development	2%	Questionnaire HE/FE	Annually

#	Strategic Plan Objectives	2006/07 Priority	Ownership	Target	Measurement method	Suggested Measurement Frequency
3	Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U13 to U16 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.		Playing Development	2%	Schools Census Club Questionnaire	Annually
6	Increase the number of teams playing recreational rugby events by 5% p.a. over the Plan period.		Playing Development	5%	Teams entering leisure festivals – RDO/CBRDP	Monthly Quarterly Annual
26	Ensure that the recommendations of the Schools, Students and Youth Review are fully implemented and reviewed by the end of the period of the Plan.		Playing Development	New full Review of SSY Fully establish CBRDP's Divisional & National Teams	Review Meeting Teams playing	Annually
27	All clubs with a Mini and Youth section to have at least two links with local schools.		Playing Development	All clubs with junior sections	RDO/Information	Monthly
7	Ensure that the RFU complies with the Sport England/NSPCC "Standards for the safeguarding of young people in sport"		Governance		Sport England Assurance system	
5	Increase by 1% year on year throughout the Plan period participation, in all aspects of the game, by groups currently under represented in the game.	7	CRSC		Problem – ask each person. Questionnaire Trafalgar.	?
8	Maintain the Ethos & Culture of our game as a differentiator with other sports.		CRSC	Attitudinal research Trend analysis – referee abuse.	MORI	Tri-annual
9	Establish a clear planning cycle for the development of the Community Game.		CRSC		Satisfactory costed business plan	Annual
12	Evolve RFU from a 'Regulatory Body' to a 'Service Support and		CRSC	Satisfaction research	MORI	

#	Strategic Plan Objectives	2006/07 Priority	Ownership	Target	Measurement method	Suggested Measurement Frequency
	Delivery Body' during the period of the Plan.					
18	Create partnerships with Premier and National Clubs to the benefit of the Community Game.		CRSC			
22	CB funding will be targeted to support priority areas of the Community Rugby work programme.		CRSC			
23	Respond to the Government's regionalisation agenda policy.		CRSC			
29	Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching supported by the best coach development system. Achieve a players/coach ratio 15:1 by the end of the Plan period.	3	Coaching	1:15 Adult Clubs + HE 1:15 Youth + schools 1:12 Mini	Questionnaire Trafalgar – all clubs, schools, HE "Number of ***active*** coaches" qualified and un qualified	Annual
30	Provide a competent referee to every game. Achieve a players/referee ratio of 30:1 by the end of the Plan period.	1	RFRU	Every game gets refereed. # fixtures # competent referees # games refereed by each		Annual
4	Achieve a 3% per annum increase in the number of volunteer administrators.	2	CB & Club Development	9% growth in the number of volunteers reported by all clubs that complete the questionnaire who play 20 or more matches p.a.	Questionnaire	Annual
28	Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators.	4	CB & Club Development	Establish CB Programme of 'information exchange.	Programme established # of CB events	Dec '06 Quarterly
13	Provide a 'medical issues' service to participants in Community Rugby.	9	CB & Club Development	Establish a 'level 1' first aid training programme for club personnel	Programme established 250 people trained	Sep '06 Quarterly
10	Establish the concept of 'Beacon Clubs' to provide leadership and		CB & Club Development			

#	Strategic Plan Objectives	2006/07 Priority	Ownership	Target	Measurement method	Suggested Measurement Frequency
	direction					
11	50% of Clubs to achieve Club Accreditation by the end of the Plan period.		CB & Club Development	2004 base +20%	Seal of approval certificates issud	6 monthly
14	Increase awareness in all RFU member organisations of their responsibilities under H & S legislation.		CB & Club Development			
15	Ensure that 50% of applicable clubs are registered as CASCs by the end of 2006/07.		CB & Club Development	2004 base + 20%	Report from HART	Quarterly
16	Increase the awareness and knowledge of insurance across the whole of the Game.		CB & Club Development			
17	All CB's to adopt and implement their agreed roles and responsibilities by 2006/07		CB & Club Development	100%	CB consultants	Annual
19	All CB's to be encouraged to adopt the updated Model Structure.		CB & Club Development	75%	CB consultants	Annual
20	Achieve funding for all levels of the game from Government and Lottery sources of a minimum of £7m p.a. averaged over the Plan period.		CB & Club Development	£7M funding	F&F reporting	Quarterly
21	Revise and update the National Facilities Strategy and implement the changes.		CB & Club Development	Updated by June '06	Published to the game	Annual

COMMITTEE PROGRAMME

	Sept	Nov	Jan	Feb	March	April	June
Council					Endorse Annual Business Plan		Endorse Budget to meet annual business plan
Management Board				Confirm Business Plan		Confirm Budget to meet annual business plan	
Directors/ Senior Mgmt			Develop Annual Business Plan	Finalise Business Plan and draft costs	Budget Preparation		
Standing Committee	*Working on the **next season's** priorities and policies*				***Working on the following seasons priorities and policies***		
	Review of the performance against the business plan of the prior season. Receives Priority and policy recommendations from Sub Committees for the **next season**	Determines the priorities of the Community Game for **next season** within the context of the quadrennial business cycle	Reviews the Annual Business Plan proposals and makes policy determinations/ recommendations to deliver the priorities for **next season** Receives outline priority proposals from Sub Committees for the **following season**			Receives outline policy proposals from Sub Committees for the **following season**	Receives and evaluates the feedback from the RLC for the **following season**
Sub Committees	*Working on the **next season's** priorities and policies*	***Working on the following seasons priorities and policies***					
	Review of the performance against target of the prior season Makes final recommendation to the CRSC on the **next seasons** priorities and policies	Develops outline priority proposals for the **following season**		Develops outline Policies that will delivery the priority proposals for the **following season**		Develops outline performance measures to evaluate the policy proposals for the **following season**	Receives, evaluates and integrates the feedback from the RLC for the **following season**
Rugby Leaders Conference					Receives the agreed priorities for the **next season** and makes recommendation as to how these priorities will be delivered. Within the context of the quadrennial business cycle looks forward to the **following season** to provide ideas on the priorities for the delivery of the strategic plan		

The Standing Committee work programme is from April to March for implementation the following July
The sub-committee work programme is from December to November for implementation the following July.

MEETING PROGRAMMING (MAIN BUT NOT SOLE CONTENT OF MEETING)

Spring's Leader Conference	Community Rugby Sub Committees	Community Rugby Standing Committee	Directors' Meetings	RFU Management Board	RFU Council
Spring Yr 0 Provide embryonic ideas for Community Rugby priorities in Yr 2.					
	Yr 1 Summer/Early Autumn Meetings Develop within their own specialist areas priorities in Yr 2.	Yr 1 Sep Meeting Hear feedback on delivery of Yr 0 priorities. Hear from sub-committees ideas for priorities for Yr 2			
	Yr1 Late Autumn Meetings Confirm identify on any policies required to deliver expected priorities in Yr 2 and how success of priorities will be measured. (Also examine delivery of priorities in previous yr to inform expected priorities in following year).	Yr 1 Autumn Retreat Develop priorities for Community Rugby in Yr 2.	Business Draft Plan Development (Nov/Dec) Develop Draft Business Plan, based on priorities set by various Standing Committees/Directors		
	Yr1 Winter (Jan – Mar) Meeting Develop any policies required to deliver expected priorities in Yr 2	Yr 1 Jan/Feb Meeting Make adjustments to any amended priorities to those in Draft Business Plan. Recommend to MB any policies required to deliver expected priorities in Yr 2	Finalise Business Plan and Draft Costs (Mar)	Confirm Business Plan (Mar/Apr)	Endorse Business Plan (Apr)
Spring Yr 1 Hear confirmed Community Rugby priorities for Yr1. Provide embryonic ideas for priorities in Yr 3.	Yr1 Spring/Early Summer Meeting (Apr – Jun). Develop any policies required to deliver expected priorities in Yr 2	Yr 1 Spring Meeting Recommend to MB any policies required to deliver expected priorities in Yr 2			
				Confirm Budget to meet Business Plan (May)	
					Endorse Budget to meet Business Plan (Jun)
	Yr 2 Summer/Early Autumn Meetings Develop within their own specialist areas priorities in Yr 3.	Yr 2 Summer Meeting (late Jun/Jul) Hear & support Delivery Plan for Yr 2 priorities.			
		Yr 2 Sep Meeting Hear feedback on delivery of Yr 1 priorities. Hear from sub-committees ideas for priorities for Yr 3			
		Yr 2 Autumn Retreat Develop priorities for Community Rugby in Yr 3.			

STRATEGIC PLAN PRIORITY OBJECTIVE	What are the significant 'risks' that will prevent the achievement of the priority? How can these risks be removed or mitigated?	What policies support the priority? What policies restrict the priorities? What policies are missing?	Does the sub-committee work programme need to be adapted?
Provide a competent referee to every game. Achieve a players/referee ratio of 30:1 by the end of the Plan period.	1. No external funding 2. Increased referee abuse will turn people off. > Discipline panel to be tough. Preventative campaigns. Link to coach education. 3. Having suitable individuals to determine competence. > Levels of competence to be defined to get people to minimum standard. 4. Trafalgar to deliver 5. England failing 6. Poor practice leading to litigation > need CPD programmes. Look at licensing eventually.	Registration system Review reward & recognition policy	No formal work programme yet. RLOs started.
Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching supported by the best coach development system. Achieve a players/coach ratio 15:1 by the end of the Plan period.	1. External funding (LSC funding) dries up – quality of coaching would drop. People would not pay more ot come on the courses. We do not have a risk register. > Continue pressure on Governtment to deliver what they promised in funding. Find other sources of funding to support coaching (eg McDonalds) 2. Not having the human and resource capability to meet demand once we have turned the demand on. > Produce a clear strategy for the ongoing development in support of new coaches 3. Trafalgar not delivering on its aims in reference to coaching. 4. If England fail then our environment or context will change. 5. Poor practice linked to litigation is a risk; insurance, catastrophic injuries > Ensure we can continue our current insurance schemes + be aware of best practice in insurance.	Licensing policy. QA measure, visible to all. Voluntary but later debate on being mandatory.	Do we have a work programme? Need to define/formalise the true work programme. Currently only informal.

STRATEGIC PLAN PRIORITY OBJECTIVE	What are the significant 'risks' that will prevent the achievement of the priority? How can these risks be removed or mitigated?	What policies support the priority? What policies restrict the priorities? What policies are missing?	Does the sub-committee work programme need to be adapted?
	6. Increased litigation leading to increased bureaucracy is the risk. > Investigate making the game safer (front row, U19 variations, better medical services) 7. Cost of licensing		
Achieve a 3% per annum increase in the number of volunteer administrators.	1. Currently a shortage of staff resources. 2. 2005 budget did not take into account approval of revised strategic Plan objectives. 3. Currently not a priority in RDO club development work programme. 4. Need to put volunteering onto clubs agenda and to provide them with appropriate resources.	No need to have formal policy on volunteering because policy framework is clearly laid out in Strategic Plan. After performance review (IMPACT ANALYSIS) in September 2006 a formal review will be undertaken by Sub-committee of Strategies (not policies) feeding to achievement of objectives.	Yes. In order to follow the new Community Rugby Standing Committee work programme.
Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators.	1. Shortage of staff resources and staff to support/deliver training/development programme. 2. 2005 budget did not take into account approval of this objective 3. Currently not a priority in RDO work programme. 4. Need to put development/training onto CB & Clubs agenda and to provide appropriate resources and opportunities		
Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U17 to U24 by 2% per annum over the Plan period.	Facilities. Resources. Coaching – availability. Refereeing – availability. Administrators. > RFU more involvement with FE-club links RDO focus Outcome based work plans	Develop 17-24 age group. Target 2% increase. Policy development underway	Established new TORs + working groups to deliver.
Increase the number of links between HE and FE institutions and local clubs by 2% per annum over the period of the plan.			

RUGBY LEADERS CONFERENCE

The Rugby Leaders conference:

- Receives the agreed priorities for the following season and makes recommendation as to **how** these priorities will be delivered at local level.
- Within the context of the quadrennial business cycle looks forward to the next but one season to provide ideas on the priorities for the delivery of the strategic plan

<table>
<tr><th>STRATEGIC PLAN PRIORITY OBJECTIVE</th><th>What information will you communicate to CB's prior to the conference so that informed debate can take place about how to deliver this priority?</th><th>What information and ideas the CB's will need to bring to the conference?</th><th>Do you require any additional information or feedback from CB's and their clubs?</th><th>What actions (menu of options) do you want CB's to undertake following the conference?</th></tr>
<tr><td>Provide a competent referee to every game. Achieve a players/referee ratio of 30:1 by the end of the Plan period.</td><td rowspan="2">– Attendees: CB Coaching Committee Chairmen. Chairmen of Referee Societies
– Draft paper of coach licensing scheme
– Framework/initial thoughts on definition of 'competence' [referees + coaches]</td><td rowspan="2">– List of club coaching co-ordinators within CB
– Working practise + details of CB Coaching Associations
– Feedback on draft paper of coach licensing scheme.</td><td rowspan="2">– Thoughts on coach/referee collaboration over training + education, prevention of referee abuse.
– Thoughts on how we have greater coach + referee involvement in schools, FE + HE establishments.
– Initial thoughts on the definition of 'competence' + potential role of confirming competence.</td><td rowspan="2">– Ensure all clubs in CB have coaching co-ordinator.
– All CB's have Coaching Association.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ensure all teams have access to high quality coaching supported by the best coach development system. Achieve a players/coach ratio 15:1 by the end of the Plan period.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Achieve a 3% per annum increase in the number of volunteer administrators.</td><td colspan="3" rowspan="2">– Attendees: CBRDP Chair + Community Rugby Chair + Council Member + Hon Sec
– Examples of best practice, programmes and resources that CB has used.
– Tick box questionnaire on volunteers</td><td rowspan="2">– CB Action Plan</td></tr>
<tr><td>Provide training programmes for volunteer administrators.</td></tr>
</table>

STRATEGIC PLAN PRIORITY OBJECTIVE	What information will you communicate to CB's prior to the conference so that informed debate can take place about how to deliver this priority?	What information and ideas the CB's will need to bring to the conference?	Do you require any additional information or feedback from CB's and their clubs?	What actions (menu of options) do you want CB's to undertake following the conference?
Increase the number of participants playing the game within the age grades of U17 to U24 by 2% per annum over the Plan period. Increase the number of links between HE and FE institutions and local clubs by 2% per annum over the period of the plan.	– Statistics and information on 16-24 participation – Send information on how it is delivered successfully eg case studies, models of good practice. – Funding opportunities – Changes of playing development TORs	– Ideas of best practice – What are the barriers to achieving increase in participation in 16-24 age groups	– Ideas and models of good practice for recruitment year 07/08	– CB to focus on HE/FE institutions as a full club within the CB. – Focusing the workforce on delivering the objectives.

APPENDIX 5

LSI – LEADERSHIP STYLE INVENTORY (Northouse, 1997)

Participant Version

Purpose

The Leadership Style Inventory is designed to help leaders understand the styles they use in relating to their subordinates and associates. The survey also provides diagnostic information as to which styles would be effective and ineffective in the leader's particular job and type of work.

Description

The Leadership Style Inventory is comprised of 68 items and takes about 20 minutes to complete. The items are used to assess the leader's behaviours and attitudes towards subordinates and associates.

"Instructions to Candidates"

Each item presents a pair of opposing statements separated by a row of letters. Indicate which statement more closely reflects your behaviour, by filling in one of the corresponding circles on the enclosed answer sheet. Consider the sample problem below:

- Read each of the two statements.
- Consider how well each statement reflects your behaviour.
- On the enclosed answer sheet fill in one of the circles. The closer the letter you select is to one of the statements, the more closely that statement reflects your own behaviour.

Test Example

I rely on my knowledge and competence to influence my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I rely on my official position to influence my subordinates.

Answer Sheet Example

A	B	C	D	E
○	●	○	○	○

- The second circle has been filled in, indicating that the statement on the left describes the person's behaviour better than the statement on the right, but not perfectly.

Confidentiality

Your ratings will be treated with complete confidentiality.

Leadership Behaviour And Attitudes

For each item, fill in one of the circles on the enclosed sheet. The closer the circle is to one of the statements, the more closely that statement reflects your behaviour.

1.	I avoid dealing with tensions that arise in my work group.	A B C D E F	I work hard to ease tensions whenever they arise in my work group.
2.	I require subordinates to submit detailed reports of their activities.	A B C D E F	I do *not* require my subordinates to submit detailed reports of their activities.
3.	I expect subordinates to follow my decisions and figure out for themselves what they have to gain.	A B C D E F	I try to reduce resistance to my decisions, by telling subordinates what they have to gain.

4.	I determine the level of work output for my subordinates.	A B C D E F	I allow my subordinates to establish their own level of work output.
5.	To instruct subordinates, I rely primarily on providing an example through my own behaviour.	A B C D E F	To instruct subordinates, I talk in detail with them about how things should be done.
6.	I do *not* spend much time reviewing my subordinates' progress with them.	A B C D E F	I spend a lot of time reviewing my subordinates' progress, to determine whether adjustments are necessary.
7.	I make sure that I do the important tasks myself.	A B C D E F	I often delegate important tasks to my subordinates.
8.	I work to develop close personal relationships with subordinates.	A B C D E F	I avoid developing close personal relationships with subordinates.
9.	I am reluctant to fire or transfer a person I have found to be unmanageable.	A B C D E F	I do not hesitate to fire or transfer a person I consider to be unmanageable.
10.	When subordinates fail at a task, I let them learn the reasons themselves.	A B C D E F	When subordinates fail at a task, I calmly but firmly let them know why.

11.	Even when my subordinates' work is progressing well, I keep myself involved and provide direction.	**A B C D E F**	As long as I see results, I don't get involved in my subordinates' work.
12.	I spend time looking for opportunities for my subordinates' professional development.	**A B C D E F**	I let my subordinates find opportunities for their professional development themselves.
13.	I avoid talking to my subordinates about organisational issues until clear decisions have been made.	**A B C D E F**	I keep everyone involved and well-informed about organisational issues that may affect them.
14.	I do *not* get concerned about conflict among my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I discourage arguments which might lead to conflict among my subordinates.
15.	I often give orders in the form of a suggestion, but make it clear what I want.	**A B C D E F**	I rarely give orders in the form of a suggestion.
16.	I make most decisions for my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I allow my subordinates to make most of their own decisions.
17.	I do not ordinarily check on subordinates progress until their assigned tasks are due.	**A B C D E F**	I frequently "check in" with subordinates to see how they are progressing on assigned tasks.

18.	I avoid disciplining my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I discipline subordinates whenever their behaviour calls for it.
19.	I set goals that are easy for my subordinates to meet.	**A B C D E F**	I set difficult but achievable goals for my subordinates.
20.	At performance reviews, I focus on specific ways to assist subordinates in reaching their goals.	**A B C D E F**	At performance reviews, I focus on providing an accurate evaluation of my subordinates' work.
21.	I discuss controversial changes in company policy at length with subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	When there are controversial changes in company policy, I simply announce them without discussion.
22.	I do *not* encourage my subordinates to talk to me about personal problems.	**A B C D E F**	I encourage my subordinates to talk to me about personal problems.
23.	I praise subordinates for adequate work.	**A B C D E F**	I praise subordinates for outstanding work.
24.	My subordinates' feelings are as important as the task at hand.	**A B C D E F**	Getting the job done is more important than my subordinates' feelings.

25.	I hesitate to take over a task from a subordinate even if the outcome is important.	**A B C D E F**	I am ready to take over a task from a subordinate if the outcome is important.
26.	I do not make a point of explaining to my subordinates the purpose of their work, as long as they understand what to do and how to do it.	**A B C D E F**	I make a special effort to explain to my subordinates the purpose of their work.
27.	I tell subordinates to come to me when they need help.	**A B C D E F**	I encourage subordinates to act as advisors to one another when they need help.
28.	I help my subordinates think through the "who, when and how" of completing tasks.	**A B C D E F**	I let my subordinates find ways to complete their tasks themselves.
29.	When a subordinate's work begins to fall short, I work with the person as long as it takes to correct the problem.	**A B C D E F**	When a subordinate's work begins to fall short, I take over the task myself.
30.	When subordinates suggest alternatives, I am quick to indicate my own preference.	**A B C D E F**	When subordinates suggest alternatives, I let them think through the pros and cons before I indicate my preference.

31.	I supervise my subordinates very closely.	**A B C D E F**	I do *not* supervise my subordinates very closely, unless there are problems with their work.
32.	I hold frequent meetings to share information and ideas with subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I keep meetings with subordinates to the minimum needed to get the job done.
33.	I expect my subordinates to depart from my instructions when necessary to get the job done.	**A B C D E F**	I expect my subordinates to follow my instructions precisely.
34.	When subordinates disagree with me, I simply tell them what must be done.	**A B C D E F**	When subordinates disagree with me, I explain why I want something done a certain way.
35.	I hold moderate standards of performance for my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I hold very high standards of performance for my subordinates.
36.	I put a great deal of effort into developing my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I work with what subordinates bring to the job, but do not put much effort into developing them.
37.	I rely on what I learn through personal contact with subordinates, to use each person's talent most effectively.	**A B C D E F**	I do *not* need much personal contact with subordinates, to use each person's talent most effectively.

38.	I develop work plans based on my own ideas.	A B C D E F	I ensure that work plans represent the ideas of my subordinates.
39.	I expect my subordinates to figure out for themselves how to do their jobs.	A B C D E F	I show my subordinates the best ways to complete their tasks.
40.	I do *not* hesitate to criticise subordinates.	A B C D E F	I am careful to maintain my subordinates' self-esteem.
41.	If I do not lay out goals and guidelines, my subordinates are passive and get nothing accomplished.	A B C D E F	When subordinates know what has to be done, specific goals and guidelines are unnecessary.
42.	I rely on my knowledge and competence to influence my subordinates.	A B C D E F	I rely on my official position to influence my subordinates.
43.	I question my subordinates to understand why their goals are important to them.	A B C D E F	If my subordinates' goals seem reasonable, I do not ask questions about them.
44.	I try to be a popular manager.	A B C D E F	I try to be a productive manager.

45.	Even with capable subordinates, I prefer to make decisions and supervise closely.	A B C D E F	I give capable subordinates the freedom to make decisions and mistakes without close supervision.
46.	I spend a lot of time trying to influence other people.	A B C D E F	Trying to influence other people takes only a small part of my time.
47.	I provide concrete directions to my subordinates, rather than expecting them to come up with a plan.	A B C D E F	I help subordinates "reality test" plans that they develop.
48.	My subordinates can do their tasks better than I can.	A B C D E F	I can do my subordinates' tasks better than they can.
49.	I expect my subordinates to carry out my instructions immediately.	A B C D E F	I do *not* always expect my subordinates to carry out my instructions immediately.
50.	I spend as little time as possible on my subordinates' job security and fringe benefits.	A B C D E F	I devote a great deal of time to my subordinates' job security and fringe benefits.
51.	I am *unwilling* to spend time trying to improve poor performers.	A B C D E F	I will spend whatever time is needed to improve poor performers.

52.	I expect my subordinates to accept decisions and realise that they are based on the organisation's best interests.	**A B C D E F**	I take time to explain the reasons for decisions, in terms of the best interests of the organisation and my subordinates.
53.	I often demonstrate concern for my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I rarely demonstrate concern for my subordinates.
54.	When making decisions, I try to get a great deal of input from my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	In making decisions, I trust my own judgement and do *not* seek input from my subordinates.
55.	I try to help new subordinates become friends with others in the work group.	**A B C D E F**	After introducing new subordinates I let them make friends on their own.
56.	I spend a significant amount of time helping subordinates to improve their performance.	**A B C D E F**	Helping subordinates to improve their performance takes a very small amount of my time.
57.	As long as the general direction of work is clear, I do not try to provide specific goals for my subordinates.	**A B C D E F**	I make sure that my subordinates have specific goals that they clearly understand.
58.	I frequently monitor my subordinates' progress on their tasks.	**A B C D E F**	I assume my subordinates will complete their tasks without frequent monitoring.

59.	I avoid telling my subordinates directly when they have done something wrong.	A B C D E F	I almost always tell my subordinates when they have done something wrong.
60.	I often reward performance that is adequate.	A B C D E F	I only reward superior performance.
61.	I set the goals for my subordinates.	A B C D E F	I ask my subordinates to set their own goals.
62.	I select subordinates I like, even if I do not think they will be outstanding performers.	A B C D E F	I try to select outstanding performers as subordinates, even if I do not personally like them.
63.	I usually ask my subordinates to develop their own plans.	A B C D E F	I provide plans for my subordinates.
64.	I avoid using warnings to "motivate" my subordinates.	A B C D E F	I "motivate" my subordinates by letting them know what will happen to them if their work is unsatisfactory.
65.	I expect good work and do not usually praise subordinates for it.	A B C D E F	I almost always tell subordinates when they have done good work.

66.	I like to co-ordinate my work group's activities with my boss and others at work.	**A B C D E F**	I like to plan my work group's activities myself.
67.	I ask my subordinates to identify their own solutions to problems.	**A B C D E F**	I identify solutions for my subordinates' problems.
68.	I encourage my subordinates to participate in most decision making.	**A B C D E F**	I do *not* permit subordinates to participate in managerial decision making.

APPENDIX 6

The Competency Portfolio

Instructions

Your responses to these questions will help this individual enhance his/her work performance. The information you provide will be completely anonymous. Unless you are this person's leader your rating will be combined with those of others before being reported.

Mark your responses on the enclosed answer sheet.

I. Please make sure the name of the individual you are rating matches the name printed at the top of the answer sheet.

II. Make sure that your relationship to the person you are rating has been correctly indicated on the answer sheet. If your relationship to the person *is not* correct, cross out the incorrect relationship and fill in the circle that indicates the correct relationship.

1. Self (I am rating myself)
2. Manager (He/She reports to me)
3. Direct Report (I report to him/her)
4. Peer

It should only take you about 30 – 35 minutes to complete this questionnaire. Each item in the questionnaire describes a work-related behaviour. Think about the performance of the individual over the previous 12 months. Then, use the scale below to indicate how characteristic each behaviour is of this individual.

Slightly	Somewhat	Very
a b	c d e	f g

Fill in the circle of the letter that best indicates how characteristic the behaviour is of the individual. If the behaviour is *very* characteristic of this individual (i.e. he/she behaves this way in *most* or *all* situation where it is appropriate), you should mark the "f" or "g". If the behaviour is *somewhat* characteristic of this individual (i.e. he/she behaves this way is *some* situations but *not in others*), you should mark the "c", "d" or "e". If the behaviour is only *slightly* characteristic of the individual (i.e. he/she behaves this way *only sporadically*), you should mark the "a" or "b". In all cases, the higher the letter, the more characteristic the behaviour.

Please try to respond to all of the items. If for some reason an item does not apply to this individual, please leave it blank.

Before you begin

Before you complete this questionnaire, please answer the following questions. The optional data is being collected for research purposes only. Your answers to these questions will be kept strictly confidential. This information will not be reported to anyone at your organisation except in aggregate.

I. How often do you have significant work-related contact with the individual you are rating?

A. Several times a day
B. At least once a day
C. Several times a week (but less than once a day)
D. At least once a week
E. Less than once a week

II. How well would you say that you know the performance of the individual you are rating?

A. Extremely well
B. Very well
C. Pretty well
D. Not too well
E. Not well at all

	If you answered "E" t o question II, or if you answer fewer than 80% of the items in this rating booklet, your data will not be used. Please return the rating booklet and answer sheet to the individual so that he/she can choose another rating.

Optional
The following information is being collected for research only. It will not be used as part of the feedback nor will it be reported to anyone in your organisation except in aggregate.

III. Compared to other people doing the same work, how effective would you say this person is?

a	b	c	d	e
Low 15%	Next 20%	Middle 30%	Next 20%	Top 15%

1. Create a compelling vision that generates excitement, enthusiasm and commitment to the group's mission.
2. Use easily available sources to obtain information.
3. Identify and capitalise on opportunities (conferences, meetings, social etc.) to meet new people and develop new contacts.
4. Manage meetings well (e.g. provide agenda, state objectives, manage time).
5. Push him/herself and others to set tough performance targets even where there is a measure of risk involved.
6. Make well thought out, dramatic statements or take unusual symbolic actions, which reinforce his/her message in a powerful and memorable way.
7. Demonstrate understanding of organisational goals and strategies developed by others.
8. Bring issues that are obstructing team effectiveness to the surface and contribute to their resolution.
9. Understand what it will take to address or resolve underlying reasons for long-term organisational behaviour.
10. Seek challenging assignments and responsibilities.
11. Make decisions and take actions to fit the situation or person faced.
12. Take action based on values even when there is a significant cost or risk in doing so (e.g. refuse an assignment rather than engage in unethical activities).
13. Be willing to learn from others (including colleagues and employees)
14. Work hard to do the job well or right.
15. Publicly credit others who have performed well.
16. State his/her own view clearly and confidently even when disagreeing with powerful others.
17. Actively work to increase co-operation among team members.
18. Apply standard procedures flexibly (e.g. alter normal procedures to fit a specific situation to get a job done or meet an important goal).
19. Balance the need to follow standard rules or procedures with the need to be effective or achieve results.
20. Act in accordance with strategic objectives or goals established by the organisation.
21. Celebrate team success.
22. Consider how organisational policies, processes, and methods might need to change in response to economic, political, social and cultural developments and trends.
23. Develop structures or frameworks that help clarify what is going on or what is most important is a situation.
24. Establish a well-integrated, strategic course of action to accomplish a long-term goal or vision, including developing multiple scenarios and contingency plans for a variety of potential problems or developments.
25. Use simple rules (e.g. "rules of thumb", common sense, etc.) to identify problems.
26. Publicly challenge powerful others to act on espoused values.
27. Develop new relationships for a specific business purpose.
28. Integrate many pieces of discrete information, ideas, issues or observations, which may not be related to one another, in a succinct and meaningful way.
29. Approach the persuasion process in stages and sequence a variety of influence methods and approaches that complement each other (e.g. direct persuasion, third-party experts, successful pilot demonstrations and ideas, etc.)
30. Appear confident in person.

31. Target, establish and maintain a network of relationships with key sources of influence across industry, political and geographical boundaries.

32. Willingly change ideas or perceptions based on new information or contrary evidence.

33. Promote broader organisational effectiveness by linking efforts of multiple groups or teams.

34. Apply complex learned concepts or methods to explain or resolve problems.

35. Break problems into manageable components or lists of simple tasks.

36. Demonstrate awareness of the projected directions of the industry and how changes might impact the company.

37. Use personal/professional networks to seek information of strategic importance and build relationships with sources of influence.

38. Sets own standards and use them to judge performance.

39. Personally get out to investigate a problem or situation.

40. Reassure others after setbacks or disappointments.

41. Identify basic relationships (e.g. single link, A leads to B) among parts of a problem or issue.

42. Encourage people to develop.

43. Explain situations or resolve complex problems by redefining them in useful new ways.

44. Use a variety of strategies to promote team moral and productivity.

45. Express confidence in his/her abilities.

46. Establish and use on-going systems to obtain information and stay up-to-date.

47. Act independently even when other disagree.

48. Express dissatisfaction with the status quo and seek ways to improve performance.

49. Go beyond standard goals to set, stretch or challenge performance goals.

50. Anticipate obstacles and think ahead to possible solutions.

51. Act on values even when it is not easy to do so (e.g. speak out even when it may hurt a friend or damage a relationship).

52. Increase the persuasive impact on an audience by developing broad, behind-the-scenes support from others who champion his/her cause as their own.

53. Strategically share resources with other teams where appropriate.

54. Know what is and what is not possible at certain times and in certain positions.

55. Explain situations or resolve complex problems by creating new concepts, models or theories.

56. Think beyond day-to-day activities to consider longer-term issues, problems or opportunities affecting the organisation.

57. Make specific changes in work methods, processes or systems to improve performance.

58. Engage in a deliberate and systematic effort to obtain needed data.

59. Promote productivity by protecting the group and its reputation.

60. Analyse goals for business outcomes (i.e. make explicit considerations of potential return-on-investment for business related goals).

61. Use informal organisational structures (i.e. key actors, decision-influences, etc.) to get things done when the formal structure must be supplemented.

62. Use existing internal and external relationships to seek specific information or gain access to an individual.

63. Arrange for appropriate assignment, formal training or other experiences to foster people's learning and development.

64. Encourage team members to succeed together as opposed to succeeding as individuals.

65. Set specific performance goals that clearly stretch him/herself, the team and the organisation beyond the current norms and that require significant change to be reached.

66. Make sure the needs of the team (personnel, resources, etc.) are met.

67. Willingly take on extreme (e.g. potentially career threatening) challenges.

68. Communicate intentions, ideas and feelings openly and directly.

69. Adapt his/her style of persuasion to fit the differing characteristics, needs and preferences of various target audiences.

70. Adapt business strategy (e.g. change the plan, goals or project) to fit the situation, including making fundamental changes in strategy.

71. Establish a network of others to keep him/her informed of relevant or potentially useful information.

72. Make repeated attempts to support his/her own point of view.

73. Use the formal structure or hierarchy (e.g. the "chain of command", positional power, rules and regulations etc.) to get things done.

74. Give directions or demonstrations with reasons or rationale to others as a training strategy.

75. Put forward own ideas assertively and directly ask others for their commitment or support.

76. Notice when a current situation resembles a past one and identify the specific similarities and/or differences.

77. Explicitly identify and consider the pros and cons associated with possible solutions.

78. Use his/her knowledge of the perspectives ad agendas of key individuals and constituencies to get things done.

79. Believe strongly in his/her ability to accomplish even the most difficult and challenging tasks.

80. Use the corporate culture and language that will produce the best response.

81. Let people affected by a decision know what is happening.

82. Willingly participate in team actions, decisions.

83. Understand ongoing power and political relationships within the organisation.

84. Encourage and respect others' expertise and contribution to the team.

85. Take repeated sustained actions over time in the face of obstacles to reach an entrepreneurial goal.

86. Give instructions or in-the-job directions to facilitate learning and development.

87. Continuously broaden and actively maintain a wide network of relationships that can be called on for current and future utility.

88. Actively use personal/professional networks to promote the organisation strategically in the industry and market.

89. Encourage others to identify the lesions learned rather than simply providing the answer.

90. Use a variety of analytical techniques to explore potential alternative causes of problems, identify alternative solutions, and weigh their relative merits.

91. Make decisions and resolve group problems in ways that are acceptable to all parties.

92. Protect or buffer others as appropriate to promote the accomplishment of learning objectives.

93. Behave consistently with his/her values and beliefs.

94. Develop well though out, long term strategies tailored to persuade or influence over time.

95. Find ways to link possible opportunities to the organisation's overall strategic plan.

96. Probe beyond surface answers to get at the root of a problem or situation.

APPENDIX 7

Organisational Climate Survey (Hay Acquisition Company, 2002b)

Participant Version

Purpose

The Organisational Climate Survey is designed to help people understand their climate or work environment, how that climate is created and the ways in which it affects people's performance.

Description

This survey consists of 90 items. Each item contains a pair of statements that relate to different aspects of your work environment. Please rate each item twice. First rate your work environment *as it is now*. Then indicate *how it should ideally be* to optimist your effectiveness.

The first section consists of 47 items that pertain to *Your Work Group*: you and other people at your level, with whom you work regularly in the part of the organisation led by your manager or team leader. Items 48 – 90 pertain to the *Entire Organisation*, including any policies or procedures that affect you and the people and groups with whom you interact or communicate.

Your Work Group: *Different Kinds of Work Groups and Reporting Relationships*

There are different kinds of groups and relationships that can define Your Work Group. In the survey items, the term *leader* will be used to describe the person who exercises leadership in any of the following kinds of work groups to which you belong:

1. **Direct Reporting Relationship**: In this case, you are asked to comment on your experiences in the work group that reports directly to your boss or manager.

2. **Indirect Reporting Relationship**: In this case, you are asked to comment on your experience working with someone who is not your direct manage but rather is in a dotted line relationship or matrix relationship to you. You are asked to consider the work environment created when this person acts as your leader.

3. **Formal Team Leader**: In this case, a person who has been formally identified as the leader of a team has asked you to comment on the work environment created for that team.

4. **Ad hoc Leader**: In this case, a person without formal designation as leader but who exercises leadership in a group or team on which you work has asked you to comment on the work environment created for that team when he or she exercises leadership.

The Entire Organisation
The Entire Organisation refers to all parts of the organisation: the organisation as you experience it beyond the part of the organisation led by your manager or team leader.

When filling out this survey, whichever work group you are using as your focus for reflection, please think about what the work environment is like as you experience it in that group and what it should be like to optimise your performance.

Confidentiality
Your answers will be confidential. In no case will your individual ratings be release to others in the organisation without your permission.

Accuracy
Please be as frank and honest as you can in rating the items on this survey. Put down what you really feel. This information will only be valuable if you provide a *truly accurate* description of the climate in your work group and in the organisation.

Instructions
- Each item consists of a *pair of opposing statements*. Read both statements.
- Between each pair of statements are *two rows*.
- The *upper row* is for your rating of "*How things are now*".
- The *lower row* is for your rating of "*How things should be*" to optimise your individual performance or your performance on a team.
- On the enclosed answer sheet, darken the circle you feel most accurately describes your work group.
- The closer the circle is to the statement, the better it describes your work group.
- For each item, rate first "How things are now" and second "How things should be".

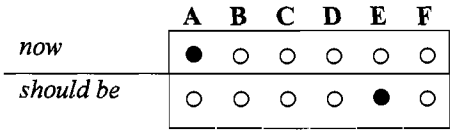
Test Example
Read the pair of statements below:

People in my work group are now allowed to make mistakes. **A B C D E F** / **A B C D E F** People in my work group are allowed to make occasional mistakes.

	A	B	C	D	E	F
now	●	○	○	○	○	○
should be	○	○	○	○	●	○

- The response in the upper row of the example, showing how things are now, indicates complete agreement with the statement on the left.
- The response in the lower row of the example, showing how things should be, indicates greater agreement, though not complete agreement, with the statement on the right.

For each item, first rate "*now*" then rate "*should be*"



Section 1: The Work Group being rated

1.	Things are not well organised in my work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Things are well organised in my work group.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
2.	In my work group, the leader puts a lot of emphasis on improving performance.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In my work group, the leader does not put much emphasis on improving performance.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
3.	There is a friendly atmosphere among people in my work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	There is an unfriendly atmosphere among people in my work group.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
4.	In my work group, the leader expects people to have everything checked, even if they think they have the right approach.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In my work group, the leader does not expect people to have everything checked if they have the right approach.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
5.	In my work group, the policies, procedures and stand practices set by the leader do not get in the way of doing the job.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In my work group, the policies, procedures and standard practices set by the leader make it hard to get the job done.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
6.	In my work group, the leader rewards/ recognises people in proportion to the excellence of their performance.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In my work group, the leader does not reward/ recognise people in proportion to the excellence of their performance.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
7.	The mission and goals for my work group are clear to the people in it.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The mission and goals for my work group are unclear to the people in it.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
8.	People in my work group are unwilling to put in extra time on the job.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are willing to put in extra time on the job.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
9.	The people in my work group are unwilling to share resources.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The people in my work group are willing to share resources.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
10.	People in my work group get recognised for doing good work.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group do not get recognised for doing good work.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
11.	People in my work group will gladly take on other people's responsibilities in an emergency.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are reluctant to take on other people's responsibilities in an emergency.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
12.	The productivity of my work group often suffers from lack of organisation and planning.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The productivity of my work group seldom suffers from lack of organisation and planning.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
13.	People in my work group put very little effort into making their performance the best it can be.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group put a lot of effort into making their performance the best it can be.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
14.	It is hard for people in my work group to have new and original ideas considered.	A	B	C	D	E	F	It is easy for people in my work group to have new and original ideas considered.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
15.	People in my work group trust each other.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group do not trust each other.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

16.	People in my work group are encouraged to take calculated risks.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are discouraged to take calculated risks.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
17.	People in my work group will usually go out of their way to make the work group successful.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group will seldom go out of their way to make the work group successful.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
18.	People are not proud to belong to my work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People are proud to belong to my work group.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
19.	People understand how the work group's goals are related to the organisation's goals.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People do not understand how the work group's goals are related to the organisation's goals.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
20.	The policies and procedures for my work group are clear.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The policies and procedures for my work group are unclear.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
21.	Promotions and raises go to the top performers in my work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Promotions and raises do not go to the top performers in my work group.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
22.	People in my work group do not treat each other with respect.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group treat each other with respect.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
23.	People in my work group are willing to make sacrifices to get the job done.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are not willing to make sacrifices to get the job done.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
24.	People in my work group are told how they should do their jobs.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are encouraged to do their jobs they way they see fit.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
25.	People in my work group do not understand what the organisation's goals are.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group understand what the organisation's goals are.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
26.	The people in my work group are always willing to provide help in getting the work done.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The people in my work group are seldom willing to provide help in getting the work done.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
27.	In my work group, the leader does not set very high standards for performance.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In my work group, the leader sets very high standards for performance.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
28.	People in my work group are criticised a great deal.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are not criticised a great deal.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
29.	People in my work group work well together as a team.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group work poorly together.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
30.	People in my work group have a clear idea of what is expected of them.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group do not have a clear idea of what is expected of them.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
31.	The best way to be successful in my work group is to play it safe.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The best way to be successful in my work group is to take calculated risks.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
32.	In my work group, the leader sets many unnecessary procedures.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In my work group, the leader keeps unnecessary procedures to a minimum.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
33.	People in my work group are warm and friendly to each other.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are cool and reserved towards each other.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

34.	People in my work group are usually praised when they do good work.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are rarely praised when they do good work.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
35.	The individuals in my work group do not understand how their work is related to the work group's goals.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The individuals in my work group understand how their work is related to the work group's goals.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
36.	Mediocre performance is not tolerated in my work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Mediocre performance is allowed to continue in my work group.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
37.	I have a clear idea of what my supervisors/ colleagues expect of me on projects.	A	B	C	D	E	F	I do not have a clear idea of what my supervisors/colleagues expect of me on projects.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
38.	People in my work group almost always speak well of it.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group rarely speak well of it.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
39.	People in my work group are left in the dark about changes that may affect them.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are kept up to date about changes that may affect them.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
40.	The goals set by my supervisor/colleague are very challenging.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The goals set by my supervisor/colleague are not challenging.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
41.	People in my work group do not know what the organisation's goals are.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group know what the organisation's goals are.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
42.	People in my work group are allowed to experiment with original ideas and try out new things.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are not allowed to experiment with original ideas and try out new things.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
43.	People in my work group get more threats and criticism than support and encouragement.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group get more support and encouragement than threats and criticism.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
44.	People in my work group co-operate with each other.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group do not co-operate with each other.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
45.	People in my work group are encouraged to take initiative in solving problems.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are discouraged from take initiative in solving problems.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
46.	People in my work group are encouraged to do things that will help meet the organisation's goals.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in my work group are not encouraged to do things that will help meet the organisation's goals.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
47.	There is a lot of personal loyalty to the work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	There is not much personal loyalty to the work group.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

Section 2: The Entire Organisation

48.	This organisation puts a lot of emphasis on improving performance	A	B	C	D	E	F	This organisation does not put much emphasis on improving performance
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
49.	People in this organisation are rewarded/ recognised in proportion to the excellence	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are not rewarded/ recognised in proportion to the excellence of
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

	of their performance.							their performance.
50.	There is a friendly atmosphere among people in the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	There is an unfriendly atmosphere among people in the organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
51.	The policies, procedures, and standard practices set by this organisation do not get in the way of doing the job.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The policies, procedures, and standard practices set by this organisation make it hard to get the job done.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
52.	In this organisation, people are expected to have everything checked by their supervisor, even if they have the right approach.	A	B	C	D	E	F	In this organisation, people are not expected to have everything checked by their supervisor, if they have the right approach.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
53.	People in this organisation are unwilling to put in extra time on the job.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation willingly put in extra time on the job.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
54.	This organisation's productivity often suffers from lack of organisation and planning.	A	B	C	D	E	F	This organisation's productivity seldom suffers from lack of organisation and planning.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
55.	It is hard for people in this organisation to have new and original ideas considered.	A	B	C	D	E	F	It is easy for people in this organisation to have new and original ideas considered.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
56.	The mission and goals for the organisation are clear to the people in it.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The mission and goals for the organisation are unclear to the people in it.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
57.	People in this organisation willingly share resources.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are reluctant to share resources.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
58.	People in this organisation get recognised for doing good work.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation do not get recognised for doing good work.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
59.	People in this organisation will gladly take on other people's responsibilities in an emergency.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are reluctant to take on other people's responsibilities in an emergency.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
60.	People in this organisation put very little effort into making their performance the best it can be.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation put a lot of effort into making their performance the best it can be.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
61.	People are proud to belong to this organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People are not proud to belong to this organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
62.	People in this organisation trust each other.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation do not trust each other.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
63.	People in this organisation are encouraged to take calculated risks.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are discouraged from taking calculated risks.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
64.	Our promotion system keeps good performers from rising in the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Our promotion system help good performers rise in the organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
65.	The policies and procedures in this organisation are confusing to me.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The policies and procedures in this organisation are clear to me.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
66.	This organisation sets many unnecessary procedures.	A	B	C	D	E	F	This organisation keeps unnecessary procedures to a minimum.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

67.	People in this organisation do not treat each other with respect.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation treat each other with respect.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
68.	People in this organisation will usually go out of their way to make their work group successful.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation will seldom go out of their way to make their work group successful.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
69.	People almost never speak well of the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People almost always speak well of the organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
70.	People do not understand what the organisation's goals are.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People understand what the organisation's goals are.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
71.	The threats and criticism people get in the organisation outweigh the support and encouragement.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The support and encouragement people get in this organisation outweigh the threats and criticism.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
72.	The lines of authority in this organisation are clear to me.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The lines of authority in this organisation are unclear to me.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
73.	This organisation does not set very high standards for performance.	A	B	C	D	E	F	This organisation sets very high standards for performance.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
74.	People in this organisation co-operate with each other.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation do not co-operate with each other.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
75.	Various units in the organisation work well together.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Various units in the organisation work poorly with others.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
76.	This organisation allows people to experiment with original ideas and try out new things.	A	B	C	D	E	F	This organisation does not allow people to experiment with original ideas and try out new things.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
77.	Mediocre performance is not tolerated in this organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Mediocre performance is allowed to continue in this organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
78.	People in this organisation are encouraged to do their jobs they way the see fit.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are told how they should do their jobs.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
79.	People in the organisation are warm and friendly towards each other.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in the organisation are cool and reserved towards each other.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
80.	People in this organisation willingly make sacrifices to get the job done.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are unwilling to make sacrifices to get the job done.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
81.	This organisation does not have a clear direction.	A	B	C	D	E	F	This organisation has a clear direction.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
82.	Salaries and incentives are generally related to job performance.	A	B	C	D	E	F	Salaries and incentives are generally related to things other than job performance.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
83.	There is not much personal loyalty to the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	There is a lot of personal loyalty to the organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
84.	The goals set by this organisation are very challenging.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The goals set by this organisation are not very challenging.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

85.	The best way to be successful in this organisation is to play it safe.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The best way to be successful in this organisation is to take calculated risks.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
86.	The mission of this organisation is clear to me.	A	B	C	D	E	F	The mission of this organisation is unclear to me.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
87.	People in this organisation are kept up to date about changes that may affect them.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are left in the dark about changes that may affect them.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
88.	There is not much gossip of back-biting in the organisation.	A	B	C	D	E	F	There is a lot of gossip and back-biting in the organisation.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
89.	People in this organisation are criticised a great deal.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People in this organisation are not criticised a great deal.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	
90.	People do not know what the organisation's goals are.	A	B	C	D	E	F	People know what the organisation's goals are.
		A	B	C	D	E	F	

APPENDIX 8

School of Sport Physical Education and Leisure

Rugby Football Union - Leadership Training Workshop

Regional Rugby Development Managers

Trainers Dr P McGovern - Headteacher, Helston School, Cornwall

Mr G Jones - Head of Coach and Physical Education, School of Sport, Physical Education and Leisure

Dates

Objectives

By the end of this workshop, you will be better able to:

- Understand the links between individual characteristics, leadership styles and oganisational performance.
- Describe your own leadership styles
- Describe the organisational climate that you create
- Describe your individual characteristics and how they relate to the way you lead others
- State personal development targets

Leadership Training Workshop - Rugby Football Union (RRDM's)

Day One

09.00 Arrival, registration and coffee

Programme Introduction / Expected Outcomes

	Personal introductions, concerns and expectations
	What makes an effective leader? Models of Leadership / Organisational Effectiveness
11.15	Coffee
11.30	Introduction to Characteristics
	Models of Excellence What effective leaders do
13.00	Lunch
14.00	Accounting for Behaviour
	Leadership Styles
	Finish
16.30+	Use of Swimming Pool, Fitness Suite, Bar, etc.
19.00 for 19.30	Course Dinner

Leadership Training Workshop - Rugby Football Union (RRDM's)

Day Two

09.00	Review / Preview
	Organisational Climate
	What does it feel like to work here?
	Exercise on Leadership Styles and Organisational Performance
	"Stuck Truck" exercise -- problem solving
11.15	Coffee
	Emotional Competencies and Questionnaire
12.30	Lunch
	Depart